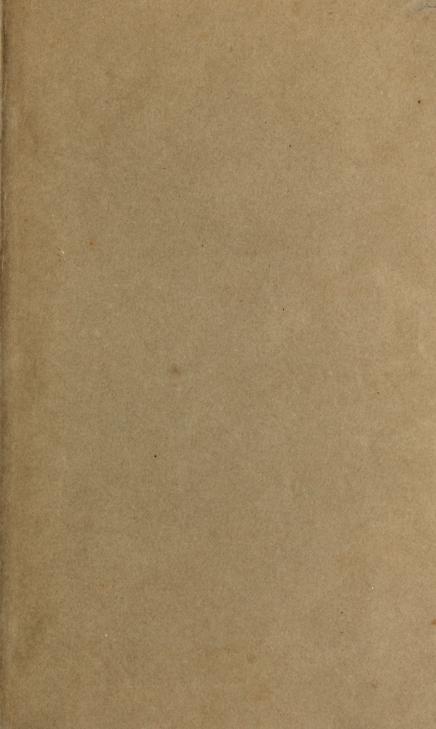
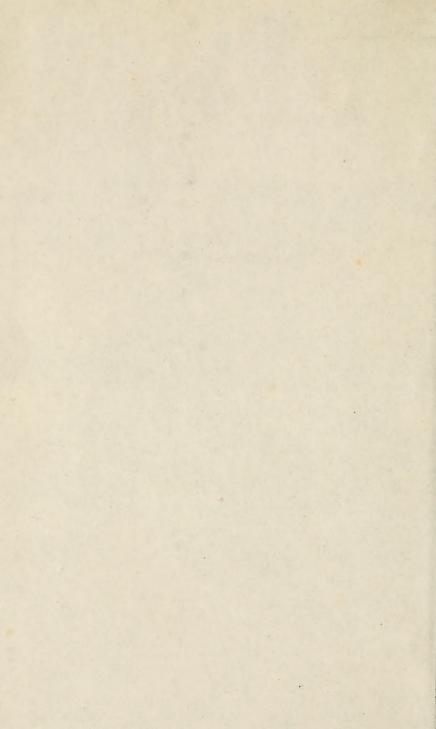




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INSTITUTES

OF

LATIN GRAMMAR.

BY

JOHN GRANT, A.M.

Atque ut Latinè loquamur, non solum videndum est, ut et verba efferamus ea quæ nemo jure reprehendat; et ea sic et casibus, et temporibus, et genere, et numero conservemus, ut nequid perturbatum ac discrepans aut præposterum sit; sed etiam lingua, et spiritus, et vocis sonus est ipse moderandus.

Cic. de Orat. lib. III.

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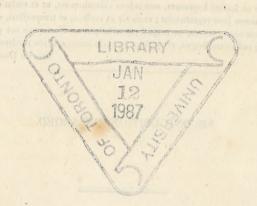
1823.

INSTITUTES

TO

LATIN GRAMMAR.

JOHN GRANT, A.M.



Printed by Richard Taylor, Shoe-Lane, London.

THE REVEREND

ALEXANDER CROMBIE, LL.D.

THE PRESENT WORK

IS

WITH THE GREATEST RESPECT
INSCRIBED.

AS A GRATEFUL THOUGH INADEQUATE ACKNOWLEDGEMENT OF HIS LONG AND DISINTERESTED FRIENDSHIP,

AND A SMALL TESTIMONY

OF THE HIGH ESTIMATION IN WHICH THE AUTHOR HOLDS.
HIS EXTENSIVE AND TRULY CRITICAL ACQUAINTANCE WITH
THE LATIN LANGUAGE,

BY HIS MUCH OBLIGED

AND MOST OBEDIENT SERVANT,

J. GRANT.

CHARLES VIEW NEWS

ALICKAMORD CHOMBIE, LLIE

MEAN THE PARTY

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ADDRESS ORGANISTS SERVE SERVE

AN A CRAFTED THOUGH INADEQUATE ACTION/LEBORIES.

AND A SELLE TOURS ASSESSED.

OF THE MOST ESCIMATION IN WHICH THE ACTION HOLDS HIS EXTENSIVE AND TRUE CRETICAL ACQUAINTABLE WITH TAKE CASE OFF.

the title mount and air

AND HOSE ORIGINAL SERVANTS.

L. GHANT.

THE PREFACE.

THE Latin Grammars commonly used in schools are so well established, and, in general, so deservedly approved, that any attempt to supersede them would justly be thought to savour of temerity or presumption. A new Latin grammar on a small scale could not be essentially different from most of them; and one upon a more extended plan would not be calculated for the purpose of initiation, to which they are chiefly adapted.

It has, however, been a prevailing sentiment among teachers of Latin, that, notwithstanding the acknowledged utility of our common grammars as initiatory books, something is still wanting to facilitate the improvement of the more advanced student Ruddiman's larger grammar, a work supplementary to the Rudiments, though truly a valuable production, is defective in several particulars. These deficiencies are partly supplied in his largest grammar; but the last is now difficult to be procured, and it treats merely of Etymology and Syntax.—To furnish, therefore, a grammar, which shall combine a more minute and correct detail of the mere elements, than is to be found in our common grammars, with an ample elucidation of the higher and more difficult principles, has been the writer's leading object in the present work.

the prosecution of it, he has directed his chief attention to the improvement of the senior scholar; and has, therefore, thrown the Etymology into tables and synopses, which, he hopes, will be useful in imparting a clear and comprehensive idea of the mechanism of the language. In treating of Syntax and Prosody, the two divisions on which he has expended most attention, he has laboured to combine the important requisites of conciseness, comprehension, and perspicuity.

Much novelty of matter is not to be expected in a work of this nature. Some explanations, however, and critical remarks, are here given, which are not to be found in any grammar with which the author is acquainted. But novelty is a merit which it is far from the intention of the writer to claim. If, by an ample, and, as he trusts, a correct digest of the Latin rules, with a copious enumeration of anomalies and exceptions, he has furnished the senior scholar with useful instruction, and the master with a convenient book of occasional reference, he will have completely attained his aim.

How far he has succeeded, it does not become him, nor will he be permitted, to determine. The work, such as it is, he submits to the candour of the public. He has not the presumption to suppose, that, while it professes to correct some errors, and to supply some deficiencies, it is itself free from faults and imperfections, either in plan or in execution. Conscious, however, that he has been actuated by an earnest desire to promote the improvement of the learner, and to facilitate the labour of the teacher, he indulges the hope of a liberal reception. And he begs leave to assure

those who may adopt the work, that, should it be so favourably received, as to arrive at another edition, he will gratefully avail himself of every judicious suggestion offered for its improvement.

ADVERTISEMENT

TO THE SECOND EDITION.

The favourable reception which this work has experienced, is truly gratifying to the author; and has encouraged him to employ his best efforts, to render the present edition more worthy of attention. The whole has been carefully revised, and, he would hope, considerably improved. It will be found to be augmented by a variety of information on interesting topics, to a much greater extent than is indicated by the mere number of additional pages. Defects and inadvertencies, almost necessarily incidental to such a publication, he fears, may still be discoverable; but, while he trusts they are but few, he anticipates, with well-grounded confidence, that they will experience the same indulgence as was so kindly shown to those of the former impression.

CROUCH-END, Feb. 18, 1823.

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INSTITUTES

OF

LATIN GRAMMAR.

LATIN Grammar is the art of speaking, and of writing, the Latin language, according to certain established rules.

It is divided into four parts: Orthography, Etymology,

Syntax, and Prosody.

The first treats of letters and syllables. The second, of the nature and properties of single words. The third, of the disposition of words into sentences. And the fourth, of the quantity of syllables.

OF ORTHOGRAPHY.

In the Latin language, there are twenty-five letters: A, B, C, D, E, F, G, H, I, J, K, L, M, N, O, P, Q, R, S, T, U, V, X, Y, and Z.

Of these, K, Y, and Z, are found only in words of Greek

origin.

They are divided into vowels and consonants.

A vowel makes a perfect sound of itself.

A consonant cannot be sounded without a vowel.

a, e, i, o, u, and y, are vowels.

The other nineteen are consonants, of which h is generally considered as only a note of aspiration.

The consonants are divided into mutes and semivowels.

The mutes are defined to be those letters, which entirely, and at once, obstruct the sound of the vowel, and prevent its continuation.

The semivowels are defined to be those consonants, which do not entirely obstruct the voice, but whose sounds may be continued at pleasure, thus partaking of the nature of vowels.

The semivowels are f, l, m, n, r, s, v. The rest are mutes. S is called by some Grammarians a letter of its own power.

Of the semivowels, four are called liquids, *l*, *m*, *n*, and *r*.

They are thus named, because they readily unite with other consonants, and glide, as it were, into their sound.

Two are called double letters, x and z; the x being equal to cs, ks, or gs, and z, to ds or ts; as dux, ducs, whence the genitive ducis; rex, regs (which, however, is generally pronounced as if recs), whence the genitive regis; zona, dsona, in which the d must be sounded very softly.

j is sometimes reckoned among the double letters; but in words of Greek origin it is, in reality, a vowel; as *Iüson*, *Iüpetus*, not *Jason*, *Japetus*; and also in such words as *Troja* and *Ajax*, although, in these, pronounced as the English i.

OF DIPHTHONGS.

A diphthong consists of two vowels forming one syllable, and pronounced by one impulse of the voice.

The diphthongs are eight, α or αc , as αtas ; α or αc , as αtas ; αtas , as αtas .

Of these, two are called improper, because the sound of the first letter is lost, α and α , pronounced like e. The others are called proper, because, in pronouncing them, the sound of each letter may be distinguished.

OF THE PRONUNCIATION.

c, before e, i, y, α , α , is pronounced like s; before α , o,

u, and consonants, like k.

g, before the vowels a, o, and u, and also before consonants (itself sometimes excepted), has the hard or guttural sound, as in the English words give, gone; before e, i, and y, or another g followed by e, it is pronounced like j; as gemma, gigno, gyrus, agger; excepting some Hebrew words, as Gethsemane, some Greek words as Gyges, and a few Latin, as gibber, gilvus, in which it has its proper hard sound.

ch is pronounced like k.

ti, before a vowel, sounds like si or ci; as ratio, prudentia; excepting Greek words, as asphaltion; words in which it is preceded by s or x, as istius, mixtio; words beginning with ti, as tiara; and infinitives formed by paragoge, as flectier, mittier.

u has but little sound, when, with any other vowel, it follows g, q, or s; as sanguis, lingua, aqua, qui, suadeo, in which its sound resembles that of w, or of u in the English

word persuade.

OF THE DIVISION OF WORDS INTO SYLLABLES.

A syllable is one distinct sound. It may be either a vowel, a diphthong, or one or more consonants with a vowel.

There are five rules for the division of words into syllables:

- 1. A single consonant between two vowels must be joined to the latter, as *a-mo*, *le-go*; except *x*, which is joined to the first vowel, as *ex-ul*.
- 2. Two consonants between two vowels are to be separated, as il-le, an-nus.
- 3. Consonants which cannot begin a word cannot begin a syllable, as ar-duus, por-cus.

4. Consonants that can begin a word ought generally to

begin a syllable, as pu-blicus, do-ctus.

5. A compound word is to be resolved into its constituent parts, as ab-utor, abs-condo*.

THE MOST COMMON ABBREVIATIONS.

A. Aulus; C. Caius; D. Decius, Decimus; G. Gaius; L. Lucius; M. Marcus; M' Manius; N. Numerius; P. Publius; Q. Quintus, Quirites, Quæstor; T. Titus; Ap. Appius; Cn. Charus; Op. Opiter; Sp. Spurius; Ti. Tiberius; Mam. Mamercus; Sex. Sextus; Ser. Servius; Tul. Tullius. In the prænomen of a woman, the capital was often inverted, as of Caia, M for Marca, L for Tita.

F. is put for filius; N. for nepos.

P. C. patres conscripti; P. R. populus Romanus; R. P. Respublica; S. C. senatûs consultum; A. U. C. anno urbis conditæ; S. salutem; S. P. D. salutem plurimam dicit; S. P. Q. R. senatus populusque Romanus; D. D. D. dat, dicat, dedicat; D. M. P. diis manibus posuit; D. D. C. Q. dat, dedicat, conscratque; H. S. or L. L. S. sestertium or sestertius; Imp. imperator; Cosconsul; Aug. Augustus; Impp. imperatores; Coss. consules, Augg. Augusti, &c. doubling the last letter of the contraction, for the plural.

THE POWER OF LETTERS IN NUMERATION.

The letters made use of by the Romans, in numeration, were C, I, L, V, X; of which the value and order are as follow:

I. denotes one.

V. five.

X. ten.
L. fifty.
C. a hundred.

I.J. five hundred.

CI.J. a thousand.

I.J.J. five thousand.

CCI.J. ... ten thousand.

CCI.J. ... fifty thousand.

CCI.J. ... a hundred thousand.

CCI.J. ... a hundred thousand.

Note 1. The antients, Pliny observes, went no further; but, if necessary,

OF ETYMOLOGY.

In Latin, are eight different kinds of words, called parts of speech:

Noun, pronoun, verb, participle, declined;

Adverb, preposition, interjection, conjunction, undeclined.

The changes made in the termination of the noun, pronoun, and participle, are called their declension.

Those made in the termination of a verb, its conjugation. The general changes made in the declinable parts of speech are called their accidents.

The accidents are six: gender, case, number, mood,

tense, and person.

Gender and case are peculiar to noun, pronoun, and participle; mood, tense and person are peculiar to the verb; and number is common to all.

OF A NOUN.

A noun (nomen) has been defined to be that part of speech which signifies the name or quality of a person or thing. If it signify the name of a person or thing, it is called a substantive noun: as vir, a man; arbor, a tree. If it signify a quality or property, as belonging to any person or thing, it is called an adjective: thus bonus, good, denotes the quality of goodness, but always in concreto, or in conjunction with some substantive; thus, bonus vir, a good man, a man having the quality of goodness.

Bonus, or good, has been termed the concrete.

Bonitas, or goodness, the abstract.

Substantives are of two kinds, proper and common.

A proper noun is that which is appropriated to an individual, or to one particular thing of a kind; as *Georgius*, George; *Londinum*, London.

An appellative, or common noun, is that which is common to a whole class of things; as vir, a man; famina, a woman; arbor, a tree.

they repeated the last number, thus CCCLDDD CCCLDDD stand for two hundred thousand.

2. By a combination of these letters, any intermediate number may be expressed; thus II denote two, XV fifteen, &c.

3. If the less numeral letter be set before the greater, it takes away from the greater as much as it imports, thus XC, ninety.

4. Writers of later date use D for five hundred, and M for a thousand.

A proper name applied to more than one, becomes an appeliative; as duodecim Casares, the twelve Casars.

I. Nouns receive names according to their signification:

thus,

1. A collective noun in the singular number signifies many; as populus, a people.

2. An interrogative asks a question; as quis? who? uter?

which of the two?

Such nouns used without a question are called indefinites.

3. A relative refers to something spoken of before; as

qui, who; ille, he; alius, another; &c.

4. A partitive signifies the whole severally; as omnis, every one; quisque, every one:—or part of many, as quidam, aliquis, &c.

II. With respect to signification and derivation.

1. Patronymics are nouns signifying pedigree or extraction, generally derived from the name of the father; as *Priamides*, the son of Priamus: but sometimes from some remarkable person of the family; as *Eucides* the son, grandson, or one of the posterity of *Eucus*: or from the founder of a nation, as *Romulidæ*, the Romans, from *Romulus*; or from countries and cities, as *Sicilis*, *Troas*, a woman of Sicily, of Troy.

2. An abstract denotes the bare quality of an adjective;

as bonitas, goodness, from bonus.

3. A gentile, or patrial, is a noun derived from the name of a country, and expressing a citizen of that country; as Scotus, a Scotsman; Macedo, a Macedonian; from Scotia, Macedonia.

4. A possessive is an adjective derived from a substantive, proper or appellative, signifying possession; as *Scoticus*, of, or belonging to, Scotland, from *Scotia*; paternus, fatherly, from pater.

5. A diminutive is a substantive, or an adjective, derived from a substantive, or adjective, denoting diminution; as *libellus*, a little book, from *liber*; parvulus, very little, from

parvus. They generally end in lus, la, or lum.

6. A denominative is any noun derived from another noun; as gratia, favour, from gratus; cœlestis, heavenly, from cœlum.

7. A verbal is any noun derived from a verb; as amor,

love, from amo; capax, capable, from capio.

8. Some nouns are derived from participles, adverbs, and

prepositions; as *fictitius*, counterfeit, from *fictus*; *crastinus*, belonging to tomorrow, from *cras*; *contrarius*, contrary, from *contra*.

Note, That the same noun may be ranked under different classes; as quis is an interrogative, relative, or partitive; pietas, an abstract, or denominative.

OF GENDER.

Genders are three; the masculine, the feminine, and the neuter; denoted sometimes by hic for the masculine, hac for

the feminine, and hoc for the neuter.

Gender is, in English, the distinction of sex; for, in this language, with very few exceptions, males are masculine; females, feminine; and, unless under particular circumstances, all things inanimate, being without sex, are neither, or neuter*, which last has, notwithstanding, received the name of a gender. But, in Latin, although males are masculine, and females, feminine, there are many nouns, having no sex, which belong, some to the masculine, some to the feminine, and some to the neuter gender, the termination and declension, not the sex, determining the gender. The former has been called natural gender; the latter, grammatical gender.

Nouns which have either the masculine or the feminine gender, according to the sense, are called common; as parens, hic or hece, a parent; if a father, masculine; a mother,

feminine.

Nouns, admitting the masculine or feminine gender independently on the sense, are called doubtful; as hic or hac

anguis, a snake.

When, under one gender, a noun signifies both the sexes of brutes, it is called epicene; as hic passer, hic mus, a sparrow, a mouse, male or female; hac aquila, hac vulpes, an eagle, a fox, male or female. When it is necessary to distinguish the sex of such words, mas, male, or fæmina, female, is added to them.

[•] There is an obvious analogy between the gender of nouns and the persons of verbs. In the first, there are, naturally, but two genders; in the second there are not, necessarily, but two persons, the speaker and hearer. As there is a third gender given to nouns, which is neither of the other two, so there may be a third person, who is neither hearer nor speaker, but the object or subject of both. In the same manner their various terminations intimate various relations and circumstances.

OF NUMBER.

Number is the distinction of one from more than one,

or many.

Numbers are two: the singular, which denotes one, or the aggregate of many, collectively; as homo, a man; multitudo, a multitude: the plural denoting more than one; as homines, men.

Some Latin nouns of the plural number signify but one; as Athenæ, Athens; others, one, or more than one, as

nuptiæ, a marriage, or marriages.

OF CASES.

It is necessary to distinguish the several relations which objects bear to one another; and this is done, in English, generally, by means of certain particles prefixed to nouns; but, in Latin, by a variation in the termination of a noun, which is termed a case.

Cases, (casus, fallings,) or the inflexious of nouns, are so called, because they have been supposed to fall or decline from the nominative, which has been represented by a perpendicular line, and called casus rectus, or the upright case, indicating the primary form of the noun; the others being named casus obliqui, or oblique cases.

There are six cases; the nominative, the genitive, the

dative, the accusative, the vocative, and the ablative.

The nominative simply expresses the name of a person or thing, and marks the subject of discourse; as Al cander

interfecit, Alexander slew.

The genitive* is said to express a variety of relations, chiefly comprised under that of *origin*, or the relation of possession, or of property, and has, in English, the sign of before it, or 's added to it; as *amor Dei*, the love of God, or God's love.

The dative is used to mark the object to which any thing, whether acquisition or loss, is referred; and is often equivalent to an English noun having the signs to and for, (both sometimes understood.) from and by; as Hoc mihi datur, seritur, adimitur; This is given to me, this is sown for me, this is taken away from me. Nec cernitur ulli—Virg.,

[•] Some have derived the word genitive, from genus, kindred or family, as if a case used to express alliance or extraction. From its expressing many different relations, this case was named by the Greeks the general case; and it has been supposed, by others, that by mistaking the import of this word, Latin grammations named it the genitive or generative case. In Latin, and in other languages, when a twofold relation subsists between two objects, this case involves an ambiguity, a ner Der denoting either the love with which God loves us, or the love with which he is loved by us

Nor is he perceived by any one. Expedi hoc negotium mihi, Dispatch for me this business. It sometimes receives the action of the verb; as Antonius nocuit Ciceroni, Antony hurt Cicero.

The accusative indicates the object to which the action of the verb passes; as Alexander interfecit *Clitum*, Alexander slew Clitus.

The vocative points out the object called upon, or addressed, with or without the sign O; and is, in general, for an obvious reason, the same in termination as the nominative; as O felix frater, My happy brother. Audi, Deus, Hear, O God.

The ablative, whose derivation implies a taking away, has been defined to be a case denoting the concomitancy of circumstances*; as Ingressus est cum gladio, He entered with a sword; i. c. having at that time a sword along with him, in his possession. But when, by inference, the accompanying circumstance is understood as the cause, manner, or instrument of an action, the preposition cum is never expressed; as He killed him with a sword, i. e. a sword was the instrument with which, or by which, his death was effected, Eum gladio interfecit. I am pale with fear, Palleo metu, i. e. not only with fear, but for fear, fear being not only an accompanying circumstance, but the cause of paleness. They went to church with noise, Templum clamore petebant, noise being an accompanying circumstance, and denoting the manner of their going.

In English it has before it such signs as with, from, for, by+, in, through, and in Latin is governed by a preposition,

sometimes expressed, but generally understood.

Observe, That nouns form all their oblique cases from the genitive singular, except the vocative singular of masculine and feminine nouns, and the accusative and vocative of neuter nouns.

* See Encyclop. Brit article, Case, in Grammar.

[†] The English particles, usually denominated signs of cases, are not, generally, a true criterion of the Latin cases. From, for, and by, are noticed as signs of the dative, and of the ablative also. But there appears to be, in Latin, a striking affinity between these two cases. Indeed, it has been contended, that the Latin dative, like the Greek, was originally governed by prepositions, and included, in itself, the force of what is called the ablative; and hence perhaps it is, that it still denotes the person or thing to which any thing is given, or from which it is taken away; but that, afterwards, when this case was divided into two cases, and a little distinction was made between them, prepositions were restricted to that form which received the name of ablative. We know that their termination is the same in Greek, or, rather, that the Greeks generally use their dative in the same way in which, most probably, their ablative, if they had one,

OF DECLENSION.

Declension is the regular distribution of nouns, according to their terminations, so that they may be distinguished from one another.

There are five declensions of substantives, distinguished by the ending of the genitive case.

The genitive of the first ends in a.

second third. in is. in ús. fourth fifth in ei.

OF ADJECTIVE NOUNS.

The adjective, as has been already observed, expresses some quality belonging to a substantive.

An adjective properly has neither genders, numbers, nor cases, but certain terminations answering to the gender, number, and case of the substantive with which it is joined.

All Adjectives are either of the first and second declension

conjointly, or of the third only.

When of the first and second declension, they have three different terminations; one for the masculine, one for the feminine, and one for the neuter; as bonus, bona, bonum*.

When of the third, they have either two terminations, the first of which is masculine and feminine, and the second neuter, as tristis, masculine and feminine, triste, neuter, or only one termination for the three genders, as felix, masculine, feminine, and neuter.

Adjectives are varied as substantives of the like termina-

tion and declension.

would be used; and that the Romans were fond of imitating the Greeks:to which it may be added, that, in Latin, the dative and ablative, both singular and plural, may be found, in certain forms at least, alike in every declension, as will hereafter be seen in the Rules for the Ablative of the Third Declension, and in the Observations on the Declensions, in regard to certain Datives of the Third and Fifth Declension, ending in e, and of the fourth in u: the difference between the dative singular and the ablative of the first declension being the principal exception to this remark, not no-But, in regard to this anomaly, it may be observed, that the dative of the first declension ends in ae, diphthong, and that it ended sometimes in ai; that the ablative of the first declension is the only case ending in a long, so that it is not improbable that formerly it may have had the vowel annexed to it, which it has since dropped, although it still retains the quantity belonging to a contraction, or to the original diphthong; and in the same manuer, the ablative of the fifth declension may have its long c, from a contraction of &i, or, in some nouns, from the long e of the dative.

But cleven, which will hereafter be mentioned, having cr or is masculine,

is feminine, and c neuter, belong to the third only.

The following synopsis will show the declension of substantives and adjectives, with the quantities of the final syllables:

A general view of the declension of substantives and adjectives.

A general								
Thus, dominus, gener, magister. For irregular Vocat. see Rule II. In the pl. Deus has dii, diis. Nouns in cr lose c in declining, except adulter, gener, presbyter, socer, Mulciber, Liber (Bacchus).	Thus, penna, musa, &c. * Anima, dea, equa, filia, liberta, mula, nata, ambæ, duæ, have ābūs.	Hus, regnum. See General Rule I.	f. and c. For G. Ac. Ab. sing. and Gen. pl. see	Hule I. For Abl. sing., Nom. and Gen. pl., see Rule III.	Thus, gradus, fructus. • Arcus, acus, ficus, lacus, partus, quercus, specus, artus, tribus, have abus. Portus, questus, genu, veru, ibus or ubus.	Thus, cornu, genu, veru, nouns neuter.	Thus, res, fides, spes, &c. most want G. D. Ab. plural, except res and dies.	ies.
Voc. masc. Adjectives in clining, except tasper, exter, vesplier (free), mise (Fri), also com	er drop tener, alther, gibbe r, prospe pounds ater has	ter, want s or mi, e in de- er (ĭus), r, lacer, r. Iber of fero dextra,	all adjection, or on onstras, we For ad ablative i only, and the plura ium, see For ce VII. Par For a Note 1. o	f two; the estras, cuja jectives had only; or if for thos I have a, o Rule VI.	e which in r ia, um, or es see Rule Rule VIII. r, &c. see ves.	u u u u u u u u u u u u u u u u u u u	-ēs Jī čī em ēs ērum ēbūs ēs ēs ēs ēbūs	ēī

GENERAL RULES.

- I. Nouns of the neuter gender (which are generally of the second and third declension) make the nominative, the accusative, and vocative singular alike; and these three cases, in the plural, end always in a^* .
- II. The vocative plural is the same as the nominative plural; and the vocative singular, as the nominative singular, except in nouns of the second declension, in us, which have e; in proper names in i-us, which throw away us; as also in geni-us, and fili-us; in Deus, which makes Deus; and in Greek nouns, which drop the s of the nominative, as Thomas, vocat. Thoma; Paris, vocat. Pari+.
 - III. The dative and ablative plural are always alike*.
 - IV. Proper names, used as such, want the plural.

IRREGULAR ADJECTIVES.

- Note I. The following adjectives are of the first and second declension, but make their genitive singular in $\bar{\imath}$ is \uparrow , (but alter, $\check{\imath}$ is) and dative in $\bar{\imath}$: unus, totus \lessgtr , solus, ullus, nullus, uter, neuter, alter, alius, iste, ille, ipse, of which the three last are pronouns. Alius, iste and ille have d in the neuter gender instead of m.
- In attending to the mechanical structure of language, it is not unworthy of being remarked, that, except in neuter nouns, the ablative singular of every declension is formed from the accusative, by dropping m: thus musam, musa; lapide, lapide; navem, navim, nave, navi; gradum, gradu; rem, re. The second declension may appear an exception to this remark; but it is to be remembered, that the antients wrote the nominative, in os, as dominos, avos, atavos; and the accusative, in om, as dominom, avom, aequom; and hence, in this declension likewise, was the ablative formed, by dropping the m. It may be likewise observed, that, in the two first declensions, the dative and ablative plural end in is; but that the dative singular in i forms bus, which happens to the third declension, and to the fourth and fifth, which are but varieties of the third.

† The poets sometimes use us in the vocative of some substantives, and adjectives, after the Attic dialect; as filius, fluvius, patricius, populus (people).

† In prose. In poetry the i is common. But the i of alterius is always

short, that of alius (which is a contraction for alius) always long.

§ Tōtus, having ius, should be distinguished from tōtus, so great, which is regularly declined. Some of these adjectives, as totus, nullus, solus, neuter, form their genitive and dative regularly, in some old authors.

Unus, totus, solus, iste, ille, ipse, have vocatives. Concerning the vocatives of the others, grammarians are divided.

THIRD DECLENSION.

This has the greatest number of varieties in its cases. They are chiefly in the genitive, accusative, and ablative singular; and in the genitive plural.

I. The genitive singular ends in *is* without increase, or with increase, after the following manner:

	Nom.	Genit.	Nom.	Genit.
1	a,	-atis.	13 es,	is.
2	e,	is.	14 is,	is.
2	i,	-itis.	15 os,	otis.
4	у,	yos.	16 us,	oris*.
5	0,	-onis.	17 ys,	yis, yos.
6	do, (fem.)	inis.	(bs,	bis.
6 7 8	go, (fem.)	inis.	18 ₹ ps,	pis. itis.
8	c, d, l,	-is.	(ut,	itis.
9	n,	-is.	19 ^{ns} ,	tis.
10	en, (neut.)	inis.	19 \ rs,	tis.
11	r,	-is.	20 x,	cis.
12	as,	atis.		

But to these are the following exceptions.

Α.		Ales,	ĭtis,	13
Abies, ĕtis,	13	Anio,	ēnis,	5
Accipiter, tris,	11,	Antistes,	ĭtis,	13
Acer, (adj.) acris,	11	Anceps,	ĭtis,	18
Acus, ĕris,	16	Apollo,	ĭnis,	5
Adeps, ĭpis,	18	Arbos, -or,	ŏris,	15
Æs, æris,	13	Arcas,	ădis,	12
Alacer, (adj.) alacris,	13	As,	assis,	12
Allobrox, ogis,	20	Aquilex,	ĕgis,	20

[•] It would have been as well to say us, ĕris, for the greater number have eris; as, acus (chaff), fædus, funus, genus, glomus, latus, munus, olus, onus, onus, pondus, rudus, scelus, sidus, vellus, Venus, vetus, viscus, ulcus, vulnus. These have ŏris; pecus, tergus, fænus, lepus, nemus, frigus, penus, pignus, pectus, stercus, decus, dedecus, littus, tempus, corpus.

Nom.	Genit.		Nom.	Genit.	
Aries.	ĕtis.	13	Dives,	ĭtis,	13
Astyanax,	actis,	20	Duplex,	ĭcis,	20
Auceps,	ŭpis,	18	•	77	
	•			E.	
	В.		Ebur,	ŏris,	11
Bes,	bessis,	13	Eques,	ĭtis,	13
Bibrax,	actis,	20		75	
Biceps,	ĭtis,	18		F.	
Biturix,	ĭgis,	20	Far,	farris,	11
Bos,	bovis,	15	Fel,	fellis,	8
	474		Femur,	ŏris,	11
	С.		Fidicen,	nis,	9
Campester	(adj.) tris,	11	Flamen, a		9
Cardo,	inis, (m. or f.	.) 5	Flos,	ōris,	15
Caro,	carnis,	5	Fædus,	ĕris,	16
Capis,	ĭdis,	14	Forceps,	ĭpis,	18
Cassis,	ĭdis,	14	Fraus,	audis,	16
Celeber, (a	dj.) bris,	11	Frons, a lea	ondis, 19;	but
Ceres,	ĕris,	13	Frons, ont	is, the foreh	ead,
Chamæleo	n, tis,	9		regular.	
Charon,	tis,	9	Frux,	ūgis,	20
Chlamys,	ydos, ydis,	17	Funus,	ĕris,	16
Charis,	ĭtis,	14			
Chremes,	is, ētis,	13		G.	
Cinyps,	ўрhіs,	18	Genus,	ĕris,	16
Concors,	dis,	19	Gigas,	ntis,	12
Cœlebs,	ĭbis,	18	Glans,	glandis,	19
Conjux,	ŭgis,	20	Glis, glīris,	a dormouse,	14,
Cor,	cordis,	11		but	
	an's name, ētis		Glis, glīdis	, mouldiness,	14
Crenis,	īdis,	14	Glomus,	ĕris, i,	16
Cres,	ētis,	13	Glos,	ōtis, oris,	15
Crus,	cruris,	16	Graphis,	ĭdis,	14
Cucumis,	is, ĕris,	14	Grex,	ĕgis,	20
Cupido,	ĭnis, (m. or f		Grus,	gruis,	16
Cuspis,	ĭdis,	14	Gryps,	yphis,	18
Custos,	ōdis,	15		TT	
	D			Н.	
	D.		Harpax,	ăgis,	20
Dares,	ētis, is,	13	Hebes,	ĕtis,	13
December,		11	Hæres,	ēdis,	11
Dido,	ūs, ōnis	6	Hepar,	ătis,	11
Dis,	ītis,	14	Heros,	ōis,	15
			1		

Nom.	Genit.		Nom.	Genit.	
Hipponax,	actis.	20	Limes,	ĭtis,	13
	ēos, īos, is,	14	Lis,	lītis,	14
Homo,	ĭnis,	5	Locuples, (a		13
Honos, -or,		15		3-,,	
Horizon,		9		M.	
Hylax,	actis,	20	Margo, m.(c	or f.) ĭnis.	5
	I, J.		Manceps,	ĭpis,	18
	igis,	20	Magnes,	ētis,	13
	ĭdis, ĭdos,	14	Mansues,	ētis,	13
Jecur,	ŏris,	11	Mas,	măris,	12
Iens, (part.)	,	19	Mater,	tris,	11
	pounds also,	_	Mendes,	ētis,	13
	tis, regular.		Merces,	ēdis,	13
Imber,	bris,	11	Merges,	ĭtis,	13
Incus,	ūdis,	16	Metropolis,		14
Index,	ĭcis,	20	Miles,	ĭtis,	13
Indiges, (ad		13	Minos,	ōis,	15
Interpres,		13	Misericors,	dis,	19
Intercus, (ac		16	Municeps,	ĭpis,	18
	itinĕris,	11	Munus,	ĕris,	16
Judex,	icis,	20	Mos,	mōris,	15
Jupiter,	Jovis,	11	Mus,	ūris,	16
Jus,	jūris,	16		3.7	
Juventus,	ūtis,	16		N.	
burelleas		10	Nefrens,	dis,	19
	L.		Nemo,	ĭnis,	5
Labos, -or,		15	Nerio,	ēnis,	5
Lac,	lactis,	8	Nesis,	īdis,	14
No.	ētis, is,	13	Nix,	nivis,	20
Lampas,	ădis,	12	November,	bris,	11
Laomedon,		9	Nox,	noctis,	20
Lapis,	ĭdis,	14		O.	
,	rs) tis, a man		01		
name,	7 7 7 7 7	11	Obses,	ĭdis,	13
	household god		October,	bris,	11
Larynx,	yngis,	20	Oedipus,	ŏdis,	16
Latus,	ĕris,	16	Olus,	ĕris,	16
Laus,	laudis,	16	Onus,	ĕris,	16
	is, a nit, 19,		Onyx,	ychis,	20
	s, <i>pulse</i> , regu		Opois,	oentis,	14
Lex,	legis,	20	Opus,	ĕris, work,	
	dis,	19	Opus,	untis, a town	
Ligus, -ur,	ŭris,	16	Ordo,	inis, m.	5

Nom.	Genit.		Nom.	Genit.	
Orphēūs,	ĕos,	16		D	
Os, ōı	is, the mouth,			R.	
Os,	ossis, a bone,	15	Remex,	igis,	20
		1	Robur,	ŏris,	11
	P.		Ros,	roris,	15
Pallas, ădi	is, a goddess,	12	Rudus,	ĕris,	16
	, a man's name		Rus,	ūris,	16
Palus,	ūdis,	16		0	
Pater,	tris,	11		S.	
Palmes,	ĭtis,	13	Salamis,	īnis,	14
Paries,	ĕtis,	13	Saluber, (ad		11
Paris,	ĭdis,	14	Salus,	ūtis,	16
Particeps,	ĭpis,	18	Samnis,	ītis,	14
Pecus, udis,	, a sheep, 16;	but	Sanguis,	inis,	14
Pecus, ŏris,	, cattle, regu			ĕris,	16
Pecten,	ĭnis,	9	Sedes, word		
Pelamys,	ydis, ydos,	17	G	ĭdis,	13
Pes,	pĕdis,	13	Seges,	ĕtis,	13
Perpes,	ĕtis,	13	Semis,	issis,	14
Phalanx,	gis,	20	Senectus,	utis,	16
Phoreys,	ynis, ynos,	17	Senex,	is,	20
Phosphis,	īdis,	14	September,	and the second s	11
Phryx,	ỹgis,	20	Servitus,	ūtis,	16
Pixis,	ĭdis, (Pyxis)	14	Sidus,	ĕris,	16
Plus,	ūris,	16	Silvester, (a		11
Pollex,	ĭcis,	20	Simois,	entis,	14
Pondus,	ĕris,	16	Simplex, (a	dj.) icis,	20
Præceps,	ĭtis,	18	Sospes, (adj		13
Princeps,	ĭpis,	18	Sphynx,	gis, gos,	20
Præpes,	ĕtis,	13	Strix,	ĭgis,	20
Præs,	ædis,	13	Subscus,	ūdis,	16
Præses,	ĭdis,	13	Supellex,		20
Promulsis,	ĭdis,	14	Supplex, (a		20
	is <i>or</i> is (adj.)	13	Sus,	sŭis,	16
Puls, tis, th	e only noun it	n ls.	Syrinx,	gis,	20
	ĕris,	14			
Pus,	ūris,	16		T.	
Pyrois,	öentis,	14	Tapes,	ētis,	13
			Teges,	ĕtis,	13
	Q.		Tellus,	ūris,	16
Quies,	ētis,	13	Teres, (adj.) ĕtis,	13
Quiris,	ītis.	14	Termes,	ĭtis,	13
,			The state of the s		

Nom.	Genit.		Nom.	Genit.	
				U, V.	
Thales,	ētis, is,	13	Vas,	vădis, a surety,	12
Themis,	ĭdis,	14	Vas,	vāsis, a vessel,	. 12
Thos,	ōis,	15	Veles,	ĭtis,	14
Thus,	ūris,	16	Vellus,	ĕris,	16
Tibicen,	ĭnis, masc.	9	Venus,	ĕris,	16
Tiryns,	ynthis,	19	Vetus, (adj.) ĕris,	16
Trachys,	ỹnis, ỹnos,	17	Viscus,	ĕris,	16
Trapezus,	untis,	16	Virtus,	ūtis,	16
Tripus,	ŏdis,	16	Ulcus,	ĕris,	16
Tros,	ōis,	15	Unedo,	m. onis,	6
Tubicen,	ĭnis, masc.	9	Volucer	, (adj.) cris,	11
Tudes,	ĭtis, is,	13	Vomis,	ĕris,	14
Turbo,	ĭnis,	5	Uter,	utris,	11
Tyrannis,	ĭdis,	14	Vulnus,	ĕris,	16
/FE37 (3	0	7		2 1 2 1	

(The figure refers to the termination to which its respective word is an exception. By means of the figure, all the exceptions may be collected, and classed according to their termination; which is the way in which they ought to be learned. Their present state is most adapted to occasional reference.)

II. The accusative of masculine and feminine nouns ends in em; but some have em and im, and these have e or i in the ablative singular, others have im or in, and these have i only. (See the list.)

III. Neuters ending in e, al, ar, have i in the ablative singular; ia in the nominative plural; and ium in the genitive. Except far, par (a pair, neut.) juhar, nectar, hepar, with proper names in e, which have e in the ablative. Neuters having e in the ablative make their nominative and genitive plural, in a, and um. (For a different distinction with regard to par, supported by some grammarians, see Par in the following list.)

IV. Nouns ending in es and is, not increasing in the genitive singular, and in ns, make the genitive plural in ium. Except vates, canis, juvenis, panis, strigilis, (because formerly strigil,) volucris, parens, opes pl. which have um. Apum from apis, (or apes plural,) volucrum, parentum, are used, as many others, by syncope, instead of the regular apium, volucrium, parentium. To nouns having ium, may be added the names in as, from countries, as Arpinas, -ātium: nostras, vestras, -atium. Utilitatium, and utilitatum; civitatium and civitatum; affinitatium and affinitatum; hæreditatium

and hareditatum, are both found, but the latter form is much preferable. Optimatium, and, by syncope, optimatum, are both used.

V. Nouns of one syllable in as, is, and s and x after a consonant, make ium in the genitive plural; as as, assium; lis, litium; urbs, urbium; merx, mercium. To these may be added caro, cohors, cor, cos, dos, faux, lar, linter, mus, nix, nox, os (ossis), Quiris, Samnis, uter, venter, and the compounds of as and uncia; as bes, sextans, septunx. Except gryps, gryphum; lynx, lyncum; sphinx, sphingum, and some similar Greek words. The obsolete nominative ops, (in the plural, opes,) though belonging to the rule, has opum.

Obs. The following words are not found in the genitive plural; and many of them have no plural: Pax, fax, fax, nex, pix, lux, mel, fel, os (oris), sol, glos, pus, ros, vicis, labes, soboles, and proles. To these may be added crux and plebs, although, in some authors, crucum or crucium, and plebium,

are found.

VI. Adjectives having e in the nominative singular neuter, have i only in the ablative; but adjectives of one termination have e or i; both having ia and ium in the plural. (There are some which have e only in the ablative, and um in the genitive plural, which in the following list are noted with *. There are others having i, or e and i, which likewise have um, and they are denoted by \dagger . Adjectives having e or i, when used as substantives, generally prefer the termination e. Par and nemor have i only in the ablative. Compar, impar, dispar, have e or i.)

VII. Comparatives have *i*, or more commonly *e*, in the ablative singular, and therefore *a* in the neuter of the nominative, accusative, and vocative plural, and *um* in the geni-

tive. Veius likewise has veteri, vetera, veterum.

VIII. Words of three genders, ending in ns, have e or i in the ablative. When used in an absolute sense, as participles, they generally prefer e. As adjectives, they have e or i. Such words often suffer a contraction in the genitive plural, as prudentum for prudentium; sapientum for sapientium; parentum for parentium; adolescentum for adolescentium.

IX. The genitive plural of words having no nominative

¹ Merior was formerly declined memoris, memore; hence the ablative memori.

singular, or no singular, is formed, by analogy, as if they had one, or, from some obsolete nominative.

Thus, Mænia, -ium, from mæne, by R. III.

Calites, -um, from calis, or cales, by inference from R. IV.

Penates, -ium, from penas, or, rather penatis, by R. V.

Primores, -um, from primor, by R. VII. Saturnalia, -ium, (& -orum) from

saturnale;

Florealia, -ium, (& -orum) from by R. III.

floreale,

These two last, and others of a similar kind, had formerly another nominative, in um, and therefore they had a genitive in orum, from the second declension; but in the dative and ablative they are of the third declension only.

OBSERVATIONS ON CERTAIN UNCOMMON CASES.

(1.) The genitive singular of the first declension formerly ended in as, after the manner of the Greeks, which is still retained in familias, when compounded with pater and mater; to which filius and filia have been added. Paterfamiliae is likewise used. The antients likewise formed it in ai, which is sometimes used by the poets, with a diæresis; thus dives pictüi vestis—Virg. Thus also lunai—Pers. terrai, aquai, &c.

When the genitive of the second declension ends in *ii*, the last *i* is often cut off by the poets; as *tuguri* for *tugurii*.

The genitive of the fourth formerly ended in i; as hoc fructi pro labore ab his fero—Ter.; also in uis, after the manner of the third, as ejus anuis causa—Ter.

The genitive of the fifth is found in es; as rabies unde illa hae germina surgunt—Lucret.; sometimes in ii, when the nominative ends in es pure, as quorum nihil pernicii causa—Cic. pro Rosc.; sometimes in e, as vix decima parte die reliqua—Sall.

The genitive plural of the first four declensions is sometimes contracted, especially by the poets; thus cælicolûm for cælicolarum; deûm for deorum; mensûm for mensium; currûm for curruum.

(2.) The dative singular of the third declension is found in a few instances in e, as viro sitiente—Juv. to her thirsty husband; morte meæ—Propert.; tibi sene—Catul.

The dative of the fourth is found in u, by Apocope; as parce metu—Virg.; curruque volans dat lora secundo—Id.; thus also impetu, exercitu, for impetui, exercitui.

The dative of the fifth is found in e, as uti cedas die-

Plaut.; prodiderit commissa fide-Hor.

(3.) The accusative plural is found, in the third declension, in is and eis, when the genitive ends in ium; as puppeis, ædis—Plaut. Amph. 1. 1. 194. Omnis homines decet—Sall. Cat. 1.

(4.) The ablative singular of the third declension has been shown to be in many nouns the same as the dative singular. From the resemblance of many cases of the fourth and fifth declensions to those of the third, it is evident that they may be considered as varieties of the third declension.

PECULIARITIES IN THE GENDER OF CERTAIN ADJECTIVES.

(1.) Masculine gender redundant.

The following have a double masculine in the nominative and vocative singular, acer, alacer, celer, celeber, campester, equester, paluster, sylvester, pedester, saluber, volucer: as nominative, vocative, masculine, acer or acris; feminine, acris; neuter, acre. Their ablative singular is in i only.

(2.) Masculine gender deficient.

Cater (of the first and second declension) is not used in the masculine, singular.

Victrix and ultrix are feminine in the singular, seldom neuter; and, in the plural, they are feminine and neuter.

Such verbals in ix partake of the nature of substantives and adjectives. They correspond, as feminines, to masculines in or: thus, victor, victrix; ultor, ultrix; fautor, fautrix. They have their ablative in e or i; but when added to a neuter noun, i is preferred: Thus, victor exercitus; victrix mulier; ferrô victrici; bella, arma, fulmina, &c. victricia.

(3.) Neuter gender deficient.

Adjectives ending in er, or, es, os, fex, are seldom found in the neuter, singular, or nominative, accusative, vocative plural: such as pauper, puber, degener, uber, memor, dives, locuples, sospes, superstes, compos, artifex. Also, comis, inops, insons, impubis, pubis, intercus, particeps, princeps, supplex, sons, vigil. Except, hebes and teres singular, the adjectives in No. 1, and others of three endings.

C 2

(4.) Masculine and feminine deficient.

Plus (the comparative of multus) has only the neuter gender in the singular, being declined as a substantive; it wants the dative and perhaps the vocative, and has e or i in the ablative; in the plural, plures masculine and feminine, and plura (or pluria, rarely), and, in the genitive, plurium. Its compound, complures, has no singular.

A LIST OF SOME OF THE IRREGULARITIES MENTIONED IN THE FOREGOING RULES, AND OF SOME OF THE EXAMPLES WHICH WERE NOT PARTICULARIZED.

A_{r}			
	Acc. Sing.	Abl. Sing.	Gen. Pl.
Adolescens,			tium, rather
•			tum.
Amnis,		e or i raro.	
Amussis,	im,	i.	
		e or i.	
Anguis,		i.	
Aprilis,	em,		
Aqualis, §	im, <i>or</i> em,	i or e.	
Araris,	im,	e.	
As and com-			
pounds,	*************	************	ium.
Avis,	************	e or i.	
Adjectives.			
Ales, †	*********	e <i>or</i> i,	itum.
Anceps, †		e <i>or</i> i,	itum, (ia,
zinceps,	************	C 07 15	nom.)
A maifare 1		o on i	,
Artifex, †	***********	e or i,	um.
В.			
Boetes,	im or in,	i or e.	
Bilbilis,	im,	i.	
Bipennis, ‡		i.	
Bos,			boum, (bo-
,			bus, dat.)
Buris,	im,	i.	, , , , , ,
	,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,	**	
C.			
Canalis,	em,	1.	
Cannabis,	im,	i or e.	
Carthago,	**********	i or e.	
Caro,	*****	***********	nium.
Centussis,	im.		

	Acc. Sing.	Abl. Sing.	Gen. Pl.
Civis,		e or i.	
Classis,		e or i.	
Cohors,			tium.
Clavis, §	im, em,	i or e.	
Cor,			dium.
Cos,			tium.
Collis,		e or i.	
Cucumis,	im,	i.	
Cutis,	. '	i or e.	
	im,	10/ 6.	
Adjectives.			
Capio, comp. of			
in -ceps,		e or i,	um.
Caput, comp. of			
<i>in</i> -ceps,	******	e or i,	um.
Celer, †	************	i,	um.
Cœlebs, *	***********	e,	um.
Compar, +	*******	e <i>or</i> i,	um.
Compos, *		ote,	um.
Concolor, *	***********	e,	um.
Color, comp.			
of, *	************	e,	um.
Corpus, comp.			
of in -or, *		e,	um.
Consors, †	******	e or i,	um.
Concors,	,	i or e, rarely,	ium.
D.		, , , , , , , , , ,	
_	im.		
Decussis,	1111.		tium.
Dos,	************		tiuiii.
Adjectives.			
Degener, +	***********	e <i>or</i> i,	um.
Dispar, +		e or 1,	um.
Dives, *	******	e, sometimes i,	um.
F.			
Familiaris, ‡		i or e.	
Faux,			cium.
Febris, §	im, em,	i, e.	
Finis,	,	i, e.	
Fornax,	**********		cium.
Fustis,	***********	e, i.	
Facio, comp. of		-,	
in -fex,	68686886687082	e or i,	um.
the Tong orence			

G.	Acc. Sing.	Abl. Sing.	Gen. Pl.
Gausape (perh.			
indecl.)		e.	
Glis,			rium.
Gummis,	im,	i.	
Genus, comp.			
of in -er,		• • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • •	um.
H.			
Hæresis,	im, in,	1.	
Hospes, adj. *	•••••	ite,	um.
I.			
Ignis,	• • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • •	e or i.	
Imber, Infans, R. IV.	• • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • •	e or i.	tium.
Jus,		jure,	um, ium sel-
Jus,	*************	juic,	dom.
Juvenis,		e,	um.
Adjectives.		,	
Impos,*		ote,	um.
Impar, †		e or i,	um.
Impubes, *		ere,	um.
Inops, †		c or i,	um.
L.			
Labes,		e or i.	
Lar,			ium.
Lens, §	tim, tem,	ti, te.	
Linter,			ium.
Lis,		•••••	tium.
Locuples, adj.		e or i,	um, ium sel-
M			dom.
M.	:		
Mephitis, Messis,	im,	e or i.	
Molaris, ‡		i.	
Mons,		e or i.	
Mugil,		e or i.	um.
Mus,			rium '.
Memor, adj. +			
(olim Memo-			
ris),		i,	um.

¹ Semel apud Ciceronem murum.

N.	Acc. Sing.	Abl. Sing.	Gen. Pl.
Natalis, ‡		i or e.	
Navis, §	im, em,	i or e.	
Nix,			nivium.
November(and			
such),	em,	i.	
0.	, , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , ,		
0.			
Occiput, §		i 01' e.	
October,	em,	1.	
Orbis,	***********	e or i.	
Os, ossis,		*************	ossitum.
Ovis,	em, im,	e or i.	
Р.			
Pelvis, §	im, em,	i or e.	
Par, $m. \& f$		e,	ium.
Par, n		i,	ium.
Palus,		*************	udium.
Pars,		e or i.	
Postis,		e or i.	
Pugil, §		i or e.	
Puppis, §	im, em,	i or e.	
Adjectives.			
Par, †		i,	ium.
Particeps, +		e <i>or</i> i,	um.
Pauper, *		ere,	um.
Pes, comp. of, *		e,	um.
Princeps, †		e or i,	um.
Præceps, *		i, e,	tum (ia, nom.)
Plus,		ri, re,	rium.
Pubes, *		ere,	umı.
	• • • • • • • • • • • • • •	CIC,	111114
Q.			
Quintilis (and			
such),	em,	i.	
Quiris,	**********	***********	itium, itum.
R.			
Ratis,	em, im,	e, i.	
Ravis,	im,	i.	
Restis,	im, em	е.	
Rivalis, ‡		i or e.	
Rus, §		i or e.	
Rudis,	***********	e.	
	,	,	

S.	Acc. Sing.	Abl. Sing.	Gen. Pl.
Sal,		e or i.	
Samnis,		***************************************	tium.
Securis,	im, em,	e.	
Seges,		e or i.	
Sementis, §	im, em,	i or e.	
Senex,		e,	um.
Sentis,	em, im,	e or i.	tarr.
Septunx,			cium.
Serapis,	im,	1.	Cluii.
	′		4:
Sextans,	***********		tium.
Sextilis,	em,	1.	
Sinapis,	im,	i, e raro.	
Sitis,	im,	1.	
Sodalis, ‡		i or e.	
Sordes,	**********	e or i.	
Sors,	•••••	e or i.	
Strigilis,	em, im sel-		
J	dom,	e.	
Supellex, §		i or e.	
Adjectives.			
Senex, *			11777
Sospes,*		e,	um.
Superstes, *		ite,	um.
	1	ite,	um.
Supplex, †	************	ici or e,	um.
Т.			
Tibris,	im, in,	i, e, ide.	
Tigris,	im, in,	i, e.	
Tridens, §		i or e.	
Turris, §	im, em,	i or e.	
Tussis,	im, em,	i or e.	
Adjectives.	,,		
Tricorpor, *		e,	11772
Tricuspis, *		1 '	um.
	•••••	e,	um
Tripes,*	***********	e,	um
U, V.		1	
Vectis,		e or i.	
Venter,			ium
Vigil, §		e or i,	um.
Vis, pl. vires,	vim,	vi,	rium
Unguis,		e or i.	
Volucris, t	***********	i <i>or</i> e,	um.
7,100	1	1 - 0, 0, 100,1000	1

Uter, Acc. Sing. Abl. Sing.	ium.
Adjectives. Uber, †	um.
Vetus,* i, e seldom, i, e, i, e,	um. um, ium sel-
Volucris,† i,	dom. um, ium sel-

‡ Such substantives have *i*, because they are formed from adjectives having *i* only, in the ablative. Though used as substantives, they are, in reality, adjectives, the substantive with which they agree being understood.

§ Substantives thus marked, take either termination indifferently: those not marked, take, in general, the first-

mentioned termination.

* + See Rule VI.

|| Carthago and such nouns have e or i, when at a place is signified, that is, when the question is made by Ubi, where? The names of gods, rivers and cities, in is, take, in general, im or in, in the accusative, i, or sometimes e, in the ablative.

A Synopsis of the Declension of Greek Nouns.

	I. Dec	clensio	n.	II. Decle	ension.	1	II. Declen	ision.	IV.
-		^				1		-	~
	1.	2.	3.	4.	5.	6.	7.	8.	9.
						}			
N.	as.	es.	e.	õs, ŏs, us.	on, um.	_	S. '	ys.	o.
G.	æ.	æ.	es.	õ, i.	i.	os, is.	is,ios, eos.	yos, yis	ûs.
D.	æ.	æ,	e.	ō	0.	i.	i.	yi.	0.
	am,an.	em,ei	ı. en.	ōn, ō. ŏn,um.	on,um.	a,em.	im,in.	ym,yn.	0.
V.	ã,	e.	e.	ōs, e.	on, um.	-	i.	у.	0.
A.	a.	e, a.	e.	ō.	0.	e.	i.	y. ye.	0.

I. According to this declension are declined such nouns as *Ænéas*, *Anchises*, *Epitome*; likewise patronymics in *des*, as *Pelides*, with the following proper names, *Ácéstes*, *Achátes*, *Agyrtes*, *Antiphates*, *Boótes*, *Butes*, *Laértes*, *Leucátes*, *Menætes*, *Philoctétes*, *Polites*, *Procrústes*, *Thersítes*, *Thyéstes*, *Zetes*. Add names of jewels and wines; as *Achátes*, *Aromatítes*. Other nouns in *es* belong to the third.

Nouns in stes make sta in the vocative: as Thyestes, Thyesta. When nouns of this declension have a plural, it is

regular.

11. According to this declension, decline such nouns as Tenedos, Androgeos, Athos, Panthus, Pelion. Os short makes i in the genitive and e in the vocative.

In the vocative Panthus has Panthu; Chorus has chore

or chorus; Chaos and Athos, have Chaos and Athos. When they have a plural, it is regular: its genitive is sometimes in on, as Georgica, Georgicon.

Some nouns in us of this declension belong likewise to

the third; thus,

Nom. G. D. A. V. A.

Orphēus, {ĕi, ĕo, ĕi, ĕum, eum, o; of the second.

Oedipus, {i o, um, oden, u, o of the second.

Oedipus, {i o, b, odi, oden, u, ode; of the third.

Oedipus, {i o, b, odi, oden, u, ode; of the third. Proper names in es, of the third, sometimes take this form, as, N. Achilles, G. Achilles, Achilleos, of the third. Achilleus, &c. of the second.

III. (6) According to this form are declined, nouns increasing impure; that is, with a consonant before is or os of the genitive; such as Stemma, Poema, hydromeli, oxymeli (both neuter) -tis; Delphin, -is; lampas, Arcas, naias, -dis; Hector, -is; Jaspis, Paris, Themis, -idis; Minos, Tros, heros, -ois (although pure); monoceros, -otis; Oedipus, -ŏdis; Trapezus, opus, -untis; Chlamys, pelamys, -ydos, -ydis, but Trachys, Phoreys, -ynos, -ynis; Cynips, -phis; Tiryns, -ynthis; Onyx, -ychis; Hylax, Bibrax, -actis.

(Pan, delphin, aër, æther have generally a. Men's names in is, have im, or in, or idem. Accusative. Women's, have ida or idem; (never im, or in,) so chlamys.

Cities, have im, ida, idem.

(7), (8) By these forms are declined those nouns which, as in Latin, have is in the genitive of the same number of syllables as the nominative; or which increase pure, as haresis, basis, poesis; names of cities in polis; misy, moly, -os; (both neuter), chelys, Erinnys, halys, Capys, -yos, -yis.-Nouns in cus have in the genitive eos, and in the accusative ea, as Tyd-eus, Thes-eus, Orph-eus, Ter-eus, genitive -eos, accus. -ca.

Neuter nouns have the N. A. V. alike in the singular, in the plural in a. Genitive plural is in um or on. Nouns in is increasing pure have ium, sometimes eon.

Dative plural, and ablative, are in bus, or, following the Greek form, in si or sin; as Troasi, naiasi, heroisi, Arcasi,

&c. Accusative plural is in as or es.

Greek nouns often lose the s of the nominative, in their

¹ See Pentaptotes. Chain is found as the acc, sing of Chaos personified.

vocative; as Thoma, Palla (from Pallas, -ntis) Philli, Capy,

Orpheu, Atla.

Greek nouns in ma, as poema, epigramma, have tis rather than tibus, in the dative and ablative plural, because the antient Latin writers used them, as if of the first declension.

IV. (9) By this form are declined such nouns as Manto, Sappho, Dido, Echo. Dido sometimes belongs to the third declension of Latin nouns, having Didonis. Juno has Junonis only.

NUMERAL ADJECTIVES.

These are divided into cardinal, ordinal, distributive, and multiplicative.

The cardinal numbers are:

Unus, One,
Duo, Two,
Tres, Three, &c.

From quatuor to centum, they are all indeclinable. Unus is not used in the plural, unless when joined to a noun which wants the singular; as una mænia, a wall; Sequaniumi, the Sequani alone. Mille is generally considered as an indeclinable adjective, significant of one thousand; millia as a substantive, expressing a plurality of thousands. This distinction, however, though generally, is not universally, observed. Thus we have tercentum mille cadi—Hor. Millia passuum for mille—Cic.

The ordinal numbers are:

Primus, the first,
Secundus, the second,
Tertius, the third,

Centesimus, the 100th.
Millesimus, the 1000th.
Bis millesimus, the 2000th.

Quartus, the fourth, &c. Decies millesimus, the 10,000th. Note. Hannibal primus superavit Alpes, means, Hannibal was the first man who crossed the Alps. Hannibal primum, implies that Hannibal for the first time, in respect to himself, or in the first place, crossed the Alps.

The distributive numbers are:

Singuli, one by one; bini, two by two; terni, three by three, &c.

The multiplicative are: Simplex, simple; duplex, double, or two-fold, &c.

¹ This is the general rule; and but a few instances are mentioned which seem to militate against it; such as *Unis vestimentis*, attributed to Cicero; and *Dua* quinque remorantui mina; and Quia ego rure dum sum unos sex unnos, to Plautus.

Note 1. Some have thought, that, from twenty to an hundred, if two numbers be coupled, the less should be put before the greater; but to this there are many exceptions. Cicero says viginti et quatuor.

2. After centum, the inferior number is put with or without a copulative; as centum et duo, or centum duo; centesi-

mus secundus, or, centesimus et secundus.

3. For octodecim and novemdecim, duodeviginti and undeviginti are elegantly used; in the same way duodetriginta for twenty-eight. Also for decimus octavus, and decimus nonus, are used duodevicesimus and undevicesimus. In the distributive numbers also; as duodeviceni.

4. Instead of primus, and secundus, we often find unus and duo before vicesimus, tricesimus, &c.; as uno et octoge-

simo anno—Cic. So too in English.

5. The cardinal and distributive numbers may be thus distinguished:

The cardinal express a number absolutely; as one, two,

&c.

The distributive are those which distribute to every single person of many, the same number. Example:

Dedit iis tres asses, He gave them three pence (to be di-

vided among them).

Dedit ternos asses, He gave them three pence each.

But poets, and sometimes prose writers use the distributive for the cardinal numbers.

The multiplicative numbers also are sometimes used for the cardinal by the poets; as *Duplices tendens ad sidera pal*-

mas, instead of duas palmas.

6. Unus, when used as a numeral, takes de or e, or ex, after it, and seldom the genitive plural; as unus ex iis, one of them. But when used for solus it takes the genitive plural; as Lampedo una fæminarum, Lampedo the only woman.

GENDERS OF NOUNS.

GENERAL RULES.

By the Signification.

I. Names of males, and nouns denoting general employments of men, are masculine; as, Mars, Numa, pater, scriba, maritus.

 II. Names of winds, months, rivers and mountains, are masculine. Names of mountains often follow the gender of the termination. Rivers likewise.

III. Names of females are feminine; as Venus, Anna, soror,

filia.

IV. Names of trees, plants, countries, cities, ships, islands, gems, and poems, are feminine; as alnus, nardus, halus, Epirus, Lacedæmon, Centaurus, sapphirus, eunúchus.

EXCEPTIONS.

Trees. Masculine; Rhamnus, spinus, and those ending in -ster.

Herbs. Masculine; Intybus, helleborus, raphanus, seldom feminine: if feminine, planta is understood.

Trees. Doubtful; Larix, lotus, rubus, cupressus. Two first rather feminine.

Herb. Doubtful; Cytisus; but rather masculine.

Trees. Neuter; Siler, suber, robur, thus, acer; those ending in um, as buxum.

Cities. Masculine; Sulmo, Pontus, Parisii, Agragas.

Neuter; Argos, Tibur; nouns in e and um, as Præneste, Pæstum. Anxur is masculine and neuter.

Gems. Masculine; Carbunculus, pyropus, opalus, beryllus, smaragdus; if feminine, gemma is un-

derstood.

LILY'S THREE SPECIAL RULES.

By the ending of the Genitive Case.

[Those words whose genders are so easily ascertained by the general rules, are omitted, such as mulier, anus, socrus, soror, uxor, Tros, Arcas, Ligur, satrapa, athletes, &c. The error of placing in the 2nd special rule, sus, grus, scrobs, mas, pes, vas (vadis), &c., words increasing short, is corrected. Other errors are likewise corrected. Those doubtfuls that have an m marked over them are commonly masculine; those having an f, feminine. The words which are common in sense and gender, are thus marked*. The others are common in sense, but not in gender.]

THE FIRST SPECIAL RULE.

Nouns not increasing in the genitive, as nubes, nubis, are feminine.

EXCEPTIONS.

MASCULINES.

Nouns in nis are masculine; (Greek nouns feminine.) Cum callis, cassis, caulisque, comēta, planēta, Axis, cenchris, collis, follis, fascis, aquālis, Fustis, mensis, piscis, postis, sentis, et ensis;

Orbis, torris, vectis, vepres, vermis, et unguis.

To these may be added Adria; nouns from the Greek in as, as tiaras; in es, as acinaces; and the compounds of as, as centussis, (and pandectæ pl.)

(a) Nouns in er and us are masculine. Except these fe-

minine:

Vannus, acus, ficusque, colusque, domusque, manusque,

Carbasus, atque tribus, porticus, alvus, humus: with words of Greek origin; as Abyssus, antidotus, atomus, dialectus, diphthongus, cremus, methodus, periodus, pharus, &c.

[Note. These feminine nouns, though exceptions to this part of the rule, are regularly feminine according to the first special rule.]

NEUTERS.

Nouns in *e* of the third declension are neuter. Nouns in *um* are neuter.

Nouns undeclined are neuter.

Virus and pelagus are neuter. Vulgus masc. and neut. Likewise, Cacoethes, hippomanes, nepenthes, panaces, neuter.

DOUBTFULS EXCEPTED.

These are doubtfuls: talpa¹, dama, canalis, cytisus, balams, finis², clunis, penus³, amnis, pampinus, corbis, linter, m. m. m. m. torquis, specus³, anguis, phasclus, grossus, paradisus, barbitus, palumbes.

¹ Talpa and dama are masculine in two instances in Virgil.

Fines, borders or territories, is always masculine.
 Penus and specus, of the third declension, are neuter.

COMMONS EXCEPTED.

Nouns compounded of verbs, ending in a; as agricola, from colo; advena from venio. Add senex, auriga, verna, sodalis, vates*, extorris, patruelis*, affinis*, juvenis*, testis*, civis*, canis*, hostis*, perduellis, conviva*.

THE SECOND SPECIAL RULE.

Nouns increasing long in the genitive, as virtus, virtūtis, are feminine.

EXCEPTIONS.

MASCULINES.

Nouns in er, or, and os, are masculine (except cos and dos, which are feminine).

Nouns of more than one syllable in *n*, *ens*, *as antis*, and the names of numbers and substances in *o*, are masculine. Add,

Sol, ren, splen, fons, mons, pons, mus, as, besque, merīdies, dens, sermo, lebes, magnes, thoraxque, tapesque.

The compounds likewise of as, as quadrans, dodrans.

NEUTERS.

Nouns of more than one syllable in al, and ar. Add Crus, jus, pus, rus, thus, fel, mel, vas (vasis), et halec, Æs, spinther, cor, lac, far, ver, os (oris, et ossis).

Sal (salt) is masc. rarely neut. Sales (plural), always masculine.

DOUBTFULS EXCEPTED.

These are doubtfuls: Arrhabo, serpens, bubo, rudens, f. f. f. perdix, lynx, limax, stirps!, when it signifies a trunk of a tree, and calx² a heel. Dies is doubtful in the singular, and masculine in the plural. Animans is of all genders.

COMMONS EXCEPTED.

Parens*, auctor*, infans*, adolescens*, dux*, illex, hæres*, exlex: derivatives from frons, as bifrons; also custos*, bos*, fur, sacerdos*, cliens*, præs*. But custos (a shoot) is masculine.

2 Calx lime, feminine.

¹ Stirps parents, or children, always feminine.

THE THIRD SPECIAL RULE.

Nouns increasing short in the genitive, as sanguis, sanguinis, are masculine.

EXCEPTIONS.

FEMININES.

Nouns of more than two syllables in do and go are feminine.

All nouns in as adis, and in is idis, (except lapis, masc.) Junge pecus (pecudis), coxendix, trabsque, supellex, Appendix, crux, fax, nex, nix, nux, pixque, filixque, Grando, fides, compes, forceps, seges, arbor, hyemsque, Scobs, carex, forfex, res, spes, sandyxque, tegesque.

NEUTERS.

Nouns in a, ar, en, put, ur, us, and names of plants in er, are neuter (except pecten and furfur, both masculine).

His quoque marmor, ador, neutris jungasque cadāver.

His æquor, tuber¹, verber, et uber, iter.

DOUBTFULS EXCEPTED.

Cardo, margo, cinis, obex, scrobs, pumex, imbrex, cortex, m. f. m. m. m. f. pulvis, grus, adeps, culex, natrix, silex, and onyx², (with its m. compounds), varix, hystrix, and rumex.

COMMONS EXCEPTED.

Vigil, pugil, exul, præsul, homo, nemo*, martyr*, augur*, antistes*, miles*, pedes, interpres*, comes*, hospes, ales, præses, princeps*, auceps, eques, obses*, conjux*, judex*, vindex*, opifex, aruspex, sus*, municeps*.

Note. To the Second Special Rule may be added these masculine exceptions.

Spadix, icis, m. a certain colour. Volvox, ocis, m. a vine-fretter. Salar, aris, m. a young salmon.

¹ Tuber, a mushroom, or wen, neut.; name of a tree, fem.; the fruit, mase. 2 Onyr, a gem, fem.; marble, or a vessel, mase.

To the Third Special Rule, feminine exceptions.

Tomex, icis, f. a cord. Merges, itis, f. a handful of corn. Smilax, ăcis, f. a yew-tree, or herb.

THE EXCEPTIONS ARRANGED, WITH A FIGURE REFERRING TO THE RULE TO WHICH THEY BELONG.

A.

Abyseus, si, a bottomless pit, 1. 1 (11) Acinaces, is, a scimitar, m. 1. Acus, ús, a needle, f. 1 (a) Adeps, ipis, fatness, d. 3. m. Adolescens, tis, a young man or woman, c. 2* Ador, oris, wheat, n. 3. Adria, æ, a sea, m. 1. Advena, æ, a stranger, c. 1. Æquor, ŏris, the sea, n. 3. IEs, ceris, brass, n. 2. Affinis, is, a relation, c. 1* Agricola, a, a husbandinan or -woman, c. 1. Ales, itis, a great bird, c. 3. Alous, i, the paynch, f. 1 (a) Amnis, is, a river, d. 1. m. Anguis, is, a snake, d. 1. m. Antidotus, i, an antidote, f. 1(a)Intistes, itis, a priest or priestess, c. 3 * Appendix, icis, an addition, f. 3. Aqualis, is, an ewer, m. 1. Arbor, oris, a tree, f. 3. Arrhabo, onis, an earnest, d. 2. m. Aruspex, icis, a soothsayer, As, assis, a nound, m. 2. Alomus, i, an atom, f. 1 (e) Aucy s, capis, a fewier, . 3. Auctor, oris, an author, c. 2

Augur, àris, a soothsayer, c. 5 *
Auriga, a. a waggoner, c. 1.
Axis, is, an axle-tree, m. 1.

B.

Balanus, i, a chesnut, d. 1.
Barbhus, i, a lute, d. 1.
Bus, bersis, eight ounces, m. 2.
Bifrons, tis, double-faced, c.
2.
Bos, bōvis, an ox or cow, c.
2 *
Bubo, ōnis, an owl, d. 2. m.

C.

Carocthes, is, abad habit, n. 1. Cadaver, čris, a carcase, n. 3. Callis, is, a vath, m. 1. Culx, cis, the heel, d. 2. Canalis, is, a channel, d. 1. m. Canis. is, a dog or bitch, c. 1 * Curbasus, i, fine linen, f. 1 Cardo, inis, a hinge, d. 3. m. Carex, icis, sedge, f. 3. Cussis, idis, an helmet, f. 3: but Cassis, is, a net. m. 1. Cuulis, is, a stalk, m. 1. Cenchris, is, a serpent, m. 1. Centussis, is, Roman money, 777, 1. 17 1 1 1 1 1 1 2 hoar of 9 14 Joseph to a consider, to 1

D

Cliens, tis, a client, c. 2 * Chinis, is, a buttock, d. 1. m. Collis, is, a hill, m. 1. Colus, i, or ús, a distaff, f. 1. (a) Comes, itis, a companion, c. 3 * Cometa, æ, a comet, m. 1. Compes, edis, a fetter, f. 3. Conviva, a, a guest, c. 1 * Conjux, ŭgis, husband, or wife, c. 3 * Cor, dis, the heart, n. 2. Corbis, is, a basket, d. 1. f. Cortex, icis, a bark, d. 3. m. Coxendix, icis, the hip, f. 3. Crus, $\bar{u}ris$, a leg, n. 2. Crux, ŭcis, a cross, f. 3. Culex, icis, a gnat, d. 3. m. Custos, odis, a keeper, c. 2* Cytisus, i, hadder, d. 1. m.

D.

Dama, æ, a deer, d. 1. f.
Dens, tis, a tooth, m. 2.
Dialectus, i, a dialect, f. 1(a)
Dies, ēi, a day, d. 2. plural,
m.
Diphthongus, i, a diphthong,
f. 1(a)
Dodrans, tis, nine ounces,
m. 2.
Domus, i, or ûs, a house, f.
1(a)
Dux, ūcis, a guide, c. 2*

E.

Ensis, is, a sword, m. 1.

Eques, itis, a horseman or

-woman, c. 3.

Eremus, i, a wilderness, f.

1 (a)

Extex, lēgis, a lawless person, c. 2.

Extorris, is, a banished person, c. 1.
Exul, ŭlis, an exile, c. 3.

F.

Far, farris, bread corn, n. 2. Fascis, is, a faggot, m. 1. Fax, ăcis, a torch, f. 3. Fel, fellis, gall, n. 2. Figure i, or $\hat{u}s$, a fig. f. 1 (a) Fides, ĕi, faith, f. 3. Filix, icis, fern, f. 3. Finis, is, an end, d. 1. m. Follis, is, a pair of bellows, m. 1.Fons, tis, a fountain, m. 2. Forceps, cipis, a pair of tongs, f. 3. Forfex, icis, a pair of shears, f. 3. Fur, faris, a thief, c. 2. Fustis, is, a club, m. 1.

G.

Grando, inis, hail, f. 3. Grossus, i, a green fig, d. 1. Grus, iis, a crane, d. 3. f.

H. Halec, ēcis, a herring, n. 2.

Hæres, ēdis, an heir, c. 2*

Hippomanes, (indecl.) a poison, n. 1.

Homo, ĭnis, a human being, c. 3.

Hospes, ĭtis, a guest, c. 3.

Hostis, is, an enemy, c. 1*

Humus, i, the ground, f. 1 (a)

Hyems, ĕmis, winter, f. 3.

Hystrix, čcis, a porcupine, d. 3.

I

Illex, lēgis, a lawless person, c. 2.

Imbrex, icis, a gutter-tile, d.

Infans, tis, an infant, c. 2 * Interpres, ĕtis, an interpreter, c. 3 *

Iter, itiněris, a journey, n. 3. Judex, icis, a judge, c. 3 * Jus, jūris, right, n. 2.

Juvenis, is, a youth, c. 1 *

L.

Lac, lactis, milk, n. 2. Lebes, ētis, a cauldron, m. 2. Limax, ācis, a snail, d. 2. f. Linter, tris, a boat, d. 1. f. Lynx, cis, a spotted beast, d. 2. f.

M.

Magnes, čtis, a loadstone, Manus, $\hat{u}s$, a hand, f. 1 (a) Margo, inis, a margin, d. 3. Martyr, yris, a martyr, c. 3* Mel, mellis, honey, n. 2. Mensis, is, a month, m. 1. Meridies, či, noon, m. 2. Methodus, i, a method, f. 1. (a)Miles, itis, a soldier, c. 3 * Mons, tis, a mountain, m. 2. Mus, $\bar{u}ris$, a mouse, m. 2. Municeps, ipis, a freeman, c. 3 *

N.

Natrix, icis, a water-snake, d. 3. m. Nemo, inis, nobody, c. 3*Nepenthes, is, bugloss, n. 1. Nex, ĕcis, death, f. 3. Nix, nivis, snow, f. 3. Nux, nucis, a nut, f. 3.

O.

Obses, idis, a hostage, c. Obex, icis, a door-bolt, d. 3. Onyx, ychis, an onyx-stone, d. 3. Opifex, icis, a workman, c. 3.

Orbis, is, a round thing, m. 1. Os, ossis, a bone, n. 2.

Os, \bar{o} ris, the mouth, n. 2.

P. Palumbes, is, a ringdove, d. Pampinus, i, a vine-leaf, d. Panaces, is, an herb, n. 1. Pandectæ, ārum, pandects, Paradisus, i, paradise, d. 1. Parens, tis, a parent, c. 2 * Patruelis, is, a cousin-german, c. 1 * Pecus, ŭdis, small cattle, f. 3. Pedes, itis, one-on-foot, c. 3. Pelagus, i, the sea, n. 1. Penus, i, or ûs, provisions, Perduellis, is, a traitor, c. 1. Perdix, īcis, a partridge, d. 2. f. Pharus, i, a watch-tower, f. 1(a)Periodus, i, a period, f. 1 (a) Phaselus, i, a barge, d. 1. m. Piscis, is, a fish, m. 1. Pix, picis, pitch, f. 3. Planeta, a, a planet, m. 1. Pons, tis, a bridge, m. 2. Porticus, ûs, a gallery, f. 1 (a)

Postis, is, a post, m. 1.
Præs, dis, a surety, c. 2*
Præses, idis, a president, c. 3.
Præsul, ŭlis, a prelate, c. 3.
Princeps, ipis, a prince or princess, c. 3*
Pugil, ilis, a champion, c. 3.
Pulvis, ĕris, dust, d. 3. m.

Pulvis, čris, dust, d. 3. m.

Pumex, icis, a pumice stone,
d. 3. m.

Pus, ūris, filth, n. 2.

Q.

Quadrans, tis, a quarter, m. 2.

R.

Ren, rēnis, a kidney, m. 2. Res, rèi, a thing, f. 3. Rudens, tis, a cable, d. 2. m. Rus, rūris, the country, n. 2. Rumex, icis, sorrel, d. 3. m.

S.

Sacerdos, otis, a priest or priestess, c. 2 * Sandyx, icis, a colour, f. 3. Scobs, obis, sawdust, f. 3. Scrobs, ŏbis, a ditch, d. 3. m. Seges, etis, standing corn, f. 3. Senex, is, an aged person, c. 1. Sentis, is, a thorn, m. 1. Sermo, onis, a speech, m. 2. Serpens, tis, a serpent, d. 2. Silex, icis, a flint, d. 3. f. Sodalis, is, a companion, c. 1. Sol, sölis, the sun, m. 2. Specus, i, or ús, a den, d. 1. Spes, ĕi, hope, f. 3. Spinther, ēris, a buckle, n. 2. Splen, enis, the spleen, m. 2. Stirps, pis, a stump, d. 2.

Supellex, -lectilis, furniture, f. 3.
Sus, sŭis, a sow, c. 3 *

T.

Talpa, æ, a mole, d. 1. f.
Tapes, ētis, tapestry, m. 2.
Teges, ētis, a mat, f. 3.
Testis, is, a witness, c. 1 *
Thorax, ācis, a breast-plate,
m. 2.
Thus, āris, frankincense, n. 2.
Tiaras, æ, a turban, m. 1.
Torquis, is, a chain, d. 1. m.
Torris, is, a firebrand, m. 1.
Trabs, is, a beam, f. 3.
Tribus, ûs, a tribe, f. 1 (a)

Tuber, ĕris, a swelling, n. 3.

Varix, icis, a swoln vein, d. Vannus, i, a fan, f. 1 (a)Vas, vāsis, a vessel, n. 2. Vales, is, a prophet or prophetess, c. 2 Uber, ĕris, a dug, n. 3. Vectis, is, a bar, m. 1. Vepres, is, a brier, m. 1. Ver, $v\bar{e}ris$, the spring, n. 2. Verber, ĕris, a stroke, n. 3. Vermes, is, a worm, m. 1. Verna, α , a slave, c. 1. Vigil, ilis, a sentinel, c. 3. Vindex, icis, an avenger, c. Virus, i, poison, n. 1. Unguis, is, a man's nail, m. Vulgus, i, the common peo-

ple, n. and m. 1.

It may be observed, that,—as Lily's Rules pre-suppose a knowledge of prosody, so far, at least, as concerns the quantity of the genitive increasing;—for those who are entirely ignorant of prosody, the following rules for the genders, according to the termination of the nominative, are preferable.

GENDERS BY THE TERMINATION.

The following six lines contain the general rules for the genders of Latin terminations; and the other lines, from the Westminster Grammar, contain the principal exceptions, arranged by the genders.

Fæmineum a primæ. Mas est us, rque secundæ. Um neutrum est. Er, or, os, o' mascula tertiæ habentur. Fæminea, impurum s, x, aus, as ferè et es, is, Et I crbale in io', et polysyllabon in do' vel in go'. Hæc sunt omnia neutra, en, ar, ur, t, c, us, e, l, ma. Us quartæ mas: U neutrum est. Es fæmina quintæ.

VARIATIO GENERIS.

1. MASCULINA ALIENÆ TERMINATIONIS.

Mascula, neutro fine; lien cum pectine, ren; sol;
Furfur, item turtur, vultur; salar; et lepus, et mus.
Mascula, fœmineo; dens, fons, mons, pons; Tudes, ames,
Cespes, item fomes, gurges, cum limite, merges,
Pes, paries, palmes, poples, cum stipite, termes,
Trames; meridies, formæ vox unica quintæ.
Callis, caulis, collis, follis, mensis, et ensis,
Fascis, fustis, piscis, postis, sentis et unguis,
Et torris, vectis, vermis, simul orbis, et axis:

1 Observe, that all nouns in o, including harpago; words of two syllables, in do and go, such as cardo, ordo, tendo, udo, ligo, cudo, and margo (this last rarely feminine); nouns in io, denoting number, or bodily substance, such as unio, duernio, ternio, &c., scipio, pugio, papilio, curculio, titio, are masculine.

But words of more than two syllables, in do and go, with grando and caro; also nouns in io derived from verbs, nouns or adjectives, as optio (from opto), rebellio (from bellum), talio (from talis) are feminine.

The genders of Greek nouns may be determined by the following lines:

Mascula in -as aut -es, sed in -c mulichria, Primæ;

Mascula item quamphrima in -cs, per -a versa Latinis.

Tiaras, Planetes -cta, Cometes -cta, Epitome, Musice.

Omnia in -cus sunt mascula, in -on sunt neutra secunde.

Theseus, Hion,

Mascula in -an, -vn, -in, -an, -rs, -us; paucula in -as, -is, Tertiæ; in -a formæ muliebria singula Quartæ.

Titan, splen, delphin, Memnon, Chremes, Euripus; adamas, Simois; Sappho, Echo.

Et vox in -nis, ut ignis; item sanguis, lapis, et glis, Vomisque et vomer, mugilque et mugilis; atque As cum compositis in -is omnibus; ut centussis. Sic pars assis in -ans, vel in -ens, vel in unx; itidem bes. Adde frutex, caudex, codex, cimexque, latexque, Grex, murex, pollex, pulex, sorexque, culexque, Ramex, et vertex, et apex, fornixque, calixque. His plura inveniet tyro, sed rariùs, usu.

2. FŒMINEA.

Vannus, humus, facit i; tribus -ûs; sic porticus, Idus, Sic acus, et manus: unica sed domus, -i facit aut -ûs. Additur his caro: quæque à talis, talio, nata est. Arbor; cos, dos; cum tellure, salus, palus, incus; Servi -que -tus, virtusque, juventus, atque senectus.

3. NEUTRALIA.

Suber, acer, siler, uber, iter, ver; junge cadaver, Tuber, item cicer, et piper, et siser, atque papaver; Æquor, marmor, cor; æs; vas -is; et os -sis, et os -ris. Omne etiam nomen casu invariabile; ceu fas.

4. COMMUNIA1.

Omnibus his commune genus; plerumque sed hæc sunt Mascula; adeps, finis, torquis, pulvis, cinis, anguis, Vepres, linter, margo, rudens, scrobs, pampinus, obex, Index, calx, cortex: Hæc fæminea; ut colus, alvus, Grando, silex, corbis, rubus, et lux, carbasus, imbrex: Plura, utriusque notæ, genera in diversa feruntur.——Sunt, quæ deficiunt, generum adjectiva duorum; Qualia in -es sunt; ut locuples: neutralia rarò. Fæmineum in -trix plurali solo ordine neutrum est.

SPECIAL RULES BY THE TERMINATION AND DECLENSION.

FIRST DECLENSION.

- (1) Nouns of this declension ending in as and cs are masculine; and in a and c, feminine.
- ¹ The words named common, in these verses, are, properly, denominated doubtful. The nouns that are common are contained in the following lines:

Commons.

Conjux atque parens, infans, patruelis et hæres,
Affinis, vindex, judex, dux, miles et hostis,
Augur, et antistes, juvenis, conviva, sacerdos,
Muniqueceps, vates, adolescens, civis et auctor,
Custos, nemo, comes, testis, sue, bosque, canisque,

Interpresque, cliens, princeps, præs, martyr et obses.

SECOND DECLENSION.

(2) us, os, r, masculine. Um, on, neuter.

THIRD DECLENSION.

(3) or, er, o, n, os, masculine.

(4) as, aus, cs, x, s (after a consonant), is, ys, do, go, and io, are feminine.

(5) c, ar, ur, us, ma, men, l, e, t, neuter.

FOURTH DECLENSION.

(6) us is masculine; u is neuter.

FIFTH DECLENSION.

(7) es is feminine. (All but meridies, which is masculine.)

THE EXCEPTIONS.

A.

Adria, e, m. 1, the Adriatic sea.

Ames, itis, m. 4, a stake. Adamas, antis, m. 4, a dia-

mond.

Acinaces, is, m. 4, a scimitar. Axis, is, m. 4, an axle-tree. Aqualis, is, m. 4, a water-

pot.

-ax, Greek nouns in, m. 4;

Abax', ăcis, m. 4, a desk. Apex, icis, m. 4, a top.

As, assis, m. 4, a poundweight.

— its compounds and parts, m. 4, except uncia, f.

Alvas, i, f. 2, the belly.

Antidotus, i, f. 2, an antidote.

Abyssus, i, f. 2, a bottomless pit.

Arctus, i, f. 2, a certain constellation.

Arbor, ŏris, f. 3, a tree. Aëdon, ōnis, f. 3, a nightingale.

Acus, ús, f. 6, a needle: but Acus, i, m. a sea fish, and

Acus, ĕris, n. chaff.

Ador, oris, n. 3, the sea. Ador, oris, n. 3, fine wheat.

Æs, æris, n. 4, brass.

-as, Greek nouns ending in, n. 4.

Augur, ŭris, c. g. s. an augur.

Antistes, itis, c. g. s. a chief priest.

Auctor, ōris, c. g. s. an author.

Adolescens, tis, c. g. s. a youth.

Affinis, is, c. g. s. a cousin.

Advena, a, c. s. m. a stranger.

Agricola, æ, c. s. m. a husbandman.

And such words as nycticorax, acis, (m.) an owl; thorar, acis, the breast; dropar, acis, (m.) a certain ointment; storax, acis, a gum. Abax is hardly Latin, but Abacus is used.

Auriga, &, c. s. m. a charioteer. Auceps, ŭpis, c. s. m. a fow-

ler.

Aruspex, icis, c. s. m. a sooth-sayer.

Ales, itis, d. a bird.

Adeps, ĭpis, d. fat. Anguis, is, d. a snake.

Amnis, is, d. m. a river.

Atomus, i, d. f. an atom.

Animans, tis, m. f. n. an animal.

В.

Bombyx, icis, m. 4, a silkworm: but

Bombyx, f. the finest cotton. Bidens, tis, m. 4, a fork: but Bidens, f. a sheep.

Bodily substance, words in io denoting, m.

Bos, bovis, c. g. s. an ox or cow.

Balanus, i. d. an acorn. Barbitos, i, d. a lute. Bubo, ōnis, d. m. an owl.

C.

Cometa, a, m. 1, a comet.
Callis, is, m. 4, a path.
Caulis, is, m. 4, a stalk.
Collis, is, m. 4, a hill.
Caudex, icis, m. 4, a stock
of a tree.
Culex, icis, m. 4, a gnat.
Cimex, icis, m. 4, a bug.
Calix, icis, m. 4, a cup.
Calyx, jcis, m. 4, the cup of
a flower.
Coccyx, jgis, cis, m. 4, a
cuckoy.

Chalybs, ybis, m. 4, steel.
Cardo, inis, m. 4, a hinge.
Cudo, ōnis, m. 4, a fur cap.
Curculio, ōnis, m. 4, a mite.
Carbasus, i, f. 2, fine linen.
Colus, i, f. 2, a distaff.
Cos, cōtis, f. 3, a whetstone.
Caro, nis, f. 3, flesh.
Chaos, -o Dat. n. 3, confusion.
Cadāver, ĕris, n. 3, a carcase.
Ciccr, ĕris, n. 3, a vetch.
Cor, dis, n. 3, the heart.
Cacoethes, (indecl.) n. 4, a bad habit.

Conviva, a, c. g. s. a guest. Custos¹, ōdis, c. g. s. a keeper.

Civis, is, c. g. s. a citizen. Comes, itis, c. g. s. a companion,

Canis, is, c. g. s. a dog or bitch.

Conjux, ŭgis, c. g. s. a married person. Cliens, tis, c. g. s. a client.

Calx, cis, d. the heel.
Clunis, is, d. a buttock.
Canālis, is, d. a channel.
Cinis, čris, d. m. ashes.
Camēlus, i, d. m. a camel.
Cortex, čcis, d. m. the bark.

Cupido², inis, m. 4, Cupid.

Dens, tis, m. 4, a tooth.
Dialectus, i, f. 2, a dialect.
Diphthongus, i, f. 2, a diphthong.
Diametros, i, f. 2, a diameter.
Dos, dōtis, f. 3, a dowry.

.

¹ Custos, a shoot, is masculine.

² Cupido, inis, m. the god of desire: but Cupido, inis, f. desire itself. Horace used cupido sordiains for desire itself.

Domus, ús, f. 6, a house. Dux, dŭcis, c. g. s. a leader. Dies, iēi, d. a day. Dies, (plur.) m. days. Dama, æ, d. f. a doe.

E.

Elephas, antis, m. 4, an elephant.

Ensis, is, m. 4, a sword. Epops, ŏpis, m. 4, a kind of bird.

Erèmus, i, f. 2, a wilderness. Eos!, (indeel.) f. 3, the morning.

Epos, (indecl.) n. 3, Epic poetry.

Exlex, $\tilde{c}gis$, c. s. m. a lawless person.

Eques, itis, c. s. m. a rider. Exul, ilis, c. s. m. an exile. Extorris, is, c. s. m. an exile.

F.

Fomes, itis, m. 4, fuel.

Fascis, is, m. 4, a faggot.
Funis, is, m. 4, a rope.
Fustis, is, m. 4, a club.
Follis, is, m. 4, a pair of bellows.
Frutex, icis, m. 4, a shrub.
Fornix, icis, m. 4, an arch.
Fons, tis, m. 4, a fountain.
Furfur, iris, m. 5, bran.
Ficus, is, f. 6, a fig.
Fruits in r, names of, n. 3.
Fas, (indeel.) n. 4, justice.
Fur, firis, c. s. m. a thief.
Finis, is, d. an end.
Fines, (plur.) m. confines.

G.

Gigas, antis, m. 4, a giant. Gurges, itis, m. 4, a whirl-pool.

Glis, glīris, m. 4, a dormouse.

(Glis, glīdis, f. mouldiness.)
Grex, ĕgis, m. 4, (seldom

fem.) a flock. Gryps, $\bar{y}phis$, m. 4, a griffon. Gluten, inis, n. 3, glue.

Grajugena, æ, c. s. m. a Greek born.

Grossus, i, d. a green fig. Grus, ŭis, d. f. a crane.

H.

Herpes, ētis, m. 4, St. Anthony's fire.

Helops, ŏpis, m. 4, a kind of fish.

Hydrops, opis, m. 4, the dropsy.

Harpago, ōnis, m. 4, a hook. Humus, i, f. 2, the ground. Halo², ōnis, f. 3, a circle round the sun.

Halcyon, ŏnis, f. 3, a king's fisher.

Hippomänes, (indecl.) n. 4, a raging humour.

Hæres, ēdis, c. g. s. an heir or heiress.

Hostis, is, c. g. s. an enemy. Homo, inis, c. s. m. a human being.

Hospes, itis, c. s. m. a guest. Hystrix, icis, d. a porcupine.

I.

Icon, onis, f. 3, an image.

Los is ranked among Monoptotes; yet eõis Gen. is found.

² The gender of this word seems uncertain. Some call it masculine, as, according to its termination, it ought to be considered.

Incus, ūdis, f. 5, an anvil.

Idus, ŭum, f. 6, the ides
(plur.)

Inguen, ĭnis, n. 3, the groin. Iter, itinĕris, n. 3, a journey.

Indeclinables, n.

Instar, (indecl.) n. bigness. Infans, tis, c. g. s. an infant. Interpres, čtis, c. g. s. an interpreter.

Illex, ēgis, c. s. m. an outlaw. Imbrex, icis, d. a gutter-tile. Index, icis, c. s. g. a discoverer.

J.

Juventus, ūtis, f. 5, youth. Juvenis, is, c. g. s. a youth. Judex, icis, c. g. s. a judge.

L.

Limes, itis, m. 4, a limit.

Lebes, ētis, m. 4, a kettle.

Lapis, idis, m. 4, a stone.

Latex, icis, m. 4, water.

Ligo, ōnis, m. 4, a spade.

Lepus, ŏris, m. 5, a hare.

Laser, ĕris, n. 3, benzoin.

Laver, ĕris, n. 3, water-par
sley.

Linter, tris, d. a little boat. Lynx, cis, d. f. a lynx. Limax, ācis, d. f. a snail. Lagopus, ŏdis, f. 5, a certain bird.

M.

Merges, itis, m. 4, a reapinghook. Magnes, ètis, m. 4, the load-

stone.

Mensis, is, m. 4, a month.

Mugilis, is, m. 4, a mullet.

Molāris, is, m. 4, a millstone.

Mons, tis, m. 4, a mountain. Merops, ŏpis, m. 4, a wood-

pecker.

Mus, mūris, m. 5, a mouse.

Meridies, iēi, m. 7, noon.

Methodus, i, f. 2, a method.

Manus, ûs, f. 6, a hand.

Marmor, ŏris, n. 3, marble.

Miles, itis¹, c. g. s. a soldier.

Municeps, ipis, c. g. s. a free
person.

Martyr, ÿris, c. g. s. a martyr. Margo, inis, d. m. a margin.

N.

-nis, Latin nouns in, m. 4, but Greek nouns, f.
Natālis, is, m. 4, a birth-day.
Nefrens, (porcus) -dis, m. 4, a barrow-pig.
Number, nouns in io denoting, m. 4.
Nihil, (indecl.) n. nothing.
Nepenthes, (indecl.) n. 4, bugloss.
Nemo, inis, c. g. s. nobody.
Natrix, icis, d. m. a watersnake.

0.

Orbis, is, m. 4, a circle.

Oryx, jgis, m. 4, a kind of goat.
Occidens (sol), -tis, m. 4, the
west.
Oriens (sol), -tis, m. 4, the
east.
Ordo, inis, m. 4, order.
Os, ossis, n. 3, a bone.
Os, oris, n. 3, the mouth.
Obses, idis, c. g. s. a hostage.

¹ Nova miles evan—Ovid; Augur capa futuri—Stat., and the like, are not to be imitated. Dur, index, vindex, prays, princeps, testis, and some others, are revely feminine.

Opifex, icis, c. s. m. an artificer.

Obex, icis, d. m. a bolt.

P.

Planeta, æ, m. 1, a planet. Pandectæ, ārum, m. 1, pandects.

Paries, ĕtis, m. 4, a wall.
Palmes, ĭtis, m. 4, a branch.
Poples, ĭtis, m. 4, the ham.
Postis, is, m. 4, a door-

post.

Piscis, is, m. 4, a fish.

Pollis, inis, m. 4, fine flour. Pantex, icis, m. 4, the

paunch.

Podex, icis, m. 4, the breech. Pollex, icis, m. 4, the thumb. Pulex, icis, m. 4, a flea.

Phænix, īcis, m. 4, a phænix.

Pons, tis, m. 4, a bridge. Profluens (fluvius), -tis, m.

4, a stream.

Pugio, ōnis, m. 4, a dagger.

Papilio, ōnis, m. 4, a moth.

-pus, Greek nouns in, m. 5,

except perhaps lagōpus, f.
a certain bird.

Pecus, ŭdis, f. 5, (or m.) a sheep: but

Pecus, oris, n. a flock of sheep.

Pharus, i, f. 2. d. a watch-tower.

Perimetros, i, f. 2, a circumference.

Palus, ūdis, f. 5, a marsh. Porticus, ûs, f. 6, a portico. Pelagus, i, n. 2, the sea. Pollen¹, ĭnis, n. 3, fine flour. Piper, ĕris, n. 3, pepper. Papaver, eris, n. 3, a poppy. Panaces, (indecl.) n. 4, allheal.

Parens, tis, c. g. s. a parent. Patruelis, is, c. g. s. a cousin-german.

Princeps, ipis, c. g. s. a prince or princess.

Præs, dis, c. g. s. a surety. Præses, idis, c. s. m. a pre-

sident.

Pedes, itis, c. s. m. one-on-foot.

Pugil, ilis, c. s. m. a champion.

Præsul, ŭlis, c. s. m. a prelate.

Perduellis, is, c. s. m. an énemy.

Phaselus, i, d. a pinnace. Palumbes, is, d. a ring-dove. Pumex, icis, d. m. a pumicestone.

Pulvis, ĕris, d. m. powder. Perdix, ĭcis, d. f. a partridge. Penus, i, or ûs, d. provisions.

Penus, ŏris, n. provisions.

R.

Ramex, icis, m. 4, a rupture. Rumex, icis, d. m. sorrel. -r, names of fruits in, n. 3. Rudens, tis, d. m. a cable.

S.

Stipes, ĭtis, m. 4, a stake.
Sanguis, ĭnis, m. 4, blood.
Sorex, ĭcis, m. 4, a rat.
Spadix, īcis, m. 4, scarlet
colour.
Seps, sĕpis, m. 4, a serpent.

Seps, sĕpis, m. 4, a serpent. Senio, ōnis, m. 4, the number six.

The gender of this noun does not seem ascertained; nor the termination.

Scipio, ōnis, m. 4, a staff.
Sol, sōlis, m. 5, the sun.
Salar, āris, m. 5, a trout.
Synodus, i, f. 2, a synod.
Sindon, ōnis, f. 3, fine linen.
Salus, ūtis, f. 5, safety.
Senectus, ūtis, f. 5, old age.
Servitus, ūtis, f. 5, slavery.
Subscus, ūdis, f. 5, a joint.
Spinther, ēris, n. 3, a buckle.
Sacerdos, ōtis, c. g. s. a priest
or priestess.

Sus, sŭis, c. g. s. a hog or sow.

Senex, is, c. s. m. an old person.

Sardonyx, ỹchis, d. a precious stone.

Silex, icis, d. a flint-stone. Stirps, is, d. a root of a tree.

Scrpens, tis, d. a serpent. Scrobs, öbis, d. a ditch. Sandyx, icis, d. f. a kind of colour.

Sal, sălis, m. sometimes n. salt.

Sales, (plur.) m. jests. Specus, ús, m. f. n. a den. Sexus, i, n. 2, a sex: but Sexus, ús, m. a sex.

Τ.

Trames, itis, m. 4, a path.
Termes, itis, m. 4, a bough.
Tapes, itis, m. 4, tapestry.
Torris, is, m. 4, a firebrand.
Thorax, ācis, m. 4, the breast.
Tradux, icis, m. 4, a graft.
Tridens, tis, m. 4, a trident.
Torrens, tis, m. 4, a torrent.
Tendo², inis, m. 4, a tendon.

Ternio, önis, m. 4, the number three.

Titio, ōnis, m. 4, a firebrand.

Turtur, ŭris, m. 5, a turtle.

Tellus, ūris, f. 5, the earth.

Tribus, ús, f. 6, a tribe.

Tuber, ĕris, n. 3, a wen: but

Tuber, ĕris, m. a fruit.

Testis, is, c. g. s. a witness.

Torquis, is, d. a chain.

Talpa, æ, d. f. a mole.

U.

Unguis, is, m. 4, a nail.
Udo, ōnis, m. 4, a sack.
Unio, ōnis, m. 4, a pearl.
Unguen, ĭnis, n. 3, an ointment.
Uber, ĕris, n. 3, an udder.
Urpex, ĭcis, m. 4, a harrow.

V.

Lectis, is, m. 4, a bar.

Vermis, is, m. 4, a worm. Vomis, eris, m. 4, a coulter. Vertex, icis, m. 4, the top. Vortex, icis, m. 4, a whirlpool. Volvox, ocis, m. 4, a vinefretter. Vultur, ŭris, m. 5, a vulture. Vannus, i, f. 2, a fan. Virtus, ūtis, f. 5, virtue. Virus, i, n. 2, poison. Ver, eris, n. 3, spring. Vas, vāsis, n. 4, a vessel. Vindex, icis, c. g. s. an avenger. Vates, is, c. g. s. a prophet

or prophetess.

Verna, æ, c. s. m. a slave.

1 Stirps for a tree, mase, or fem.; for parents or children, always fem.

² An uncommon word; generally plural.

Varix, icis, d. m. a swoln vein. Vulgus, i, m. and n. the vulgar.

Z.

Zinziber, ĕris, n. 3, ginger.

The figure points out the rule to which the word is an exception. c. s. m. denotes the word to be common in sense

or signification, but masculine in gender.

c. g. s. shows the word to be common in sense, but that it varies its gender, according to its signification. d. m. means doubtful, but that the masculine is preferable. d. f.

doubtful likewise, but feminine in preference.

By the referring figure, all the exceptions may be classed either according to the gender, after the manner of the Latin verses, since in each letter they are arranged in the order of masculines, feminines, neuters, &c.; or they may be classed, as in the second form, according to their declension and termination.

HETEROCLITES.

Nouns differing from the common declension, are generally named Heteroclites.

Deficit, aut variat, heteroclita vox, vel abundat.

I. Abundants have different terminations to the same case.

II. Variants change from one declension or gender to another.

III. Defectives want case, sometimes number.

Observe (1), some words are of double-declension, as the following:

	Sing.	Plur.
N.	Jus-jurandum,	Jura-juranda,
G.	Juris-jurandi,	Jurum-jurandorum,
D.	Juri-jurando,	Juribus-jurandis,
Ac.	Jus-jurandum,	Jura-juranda,
V.	Jus-jurandum,	Jura-juranda,
A.	Jure-jurando.	Juribus-jurandis.
N. G. D. Ac. V. A.	Res-publica, Rei-publicæ, Rei-publicæ, Rem-publicam, Res-publica, Re-publica.	Res-publicæ, Rerum-publicarum, Rebus-publicis, Res-publicas, Res-publicæ, Rebus-publicis.

The genitive, dative and ablative plural of jus-jurandum are not used. Jus is a substantive neuter, of the third declension; jurandum the neuter gender of the future parti-

ciple passive of the verb juro. Rcs is a noun feminine of the 5th declension, agreeing with publicus, an adjective of the 1st and 2nd. In double words nominatives only are declinable; juris-peritus declines peritus only. Alter-uter declines its last nominative only. Pro consule, for proconsul, and the like, may be found.

Observe (2), some words are of peculiar-declension, as the

following:

		Plura	l.		l Cina	Cina
	A 1 3	M.	F.	N.	Sing.	Sing.
N_*	Amb-	0,	-æ,	-0,	Jesus,	Jupiter.
0	Du-	,				-
G.		, ,	-arum,	-orum,	Jesu,	Jovis,
D.		-obus,	-abus,	-obus,	Jesu,	Jovi,
Ac.		-OS, O,	-as,	-0,	Jesum,	Jovem,
V.		-O ₉	-æ,	-0,	Jesu,	Jupiter,
Ab.		-obus,	-abus,	-obus.	Jesu.	Jove.
	Sing.	Plur		Sing.	Plur	
N.	Vis,	Vires	,	Bos,	Bove	eS ₉
G.	Vis,	Viriu	m, .	Bovis,	Bour	m,
D.		Virib	us,	Bovi,	Bobi	is, bubus,
Ac.	Vim,			Boven		
V.	Vis,	Vires	3,	Bos,	Boy	es,
Ab.	Vi.	Viril	ous.	Bove.	Bob	us, bubus.

I. ABUNDANTS.

1. Some abound in termination, as arbor, arbos.

2. Some are of the first and third declension, as Calchas, a or antis.

3. Of the second and third, as *Iber*, ēri or ēris, sequester, ri or ris.

4. Of the second and fourth. Colus, ficus, laurus, pinus, have u in the ablative singular, and us in the nominative, accusative, vocative plural.

Quercus of the fourth makes quercorum, and -uum. Versus has versi, versorum, versis, as well as its regular cases.

Domus is declined according to the verse of Alstedius, "Tolle me, mi, mu, mis, si declinare domus vis."

	Singular.	Plural.
N. V.	Domus,	Domus,
G.	Domi (at home), Domus,	Domorum, uum,
D.	Domui, Domo,	Domibus,
Ac.	Domum,	Domos, us,
Ab.	Domo.	Domibus.

5. Of the third and fifth, as plebs, is; or plebes, ei; fames, is or ei.

6. Some abound in gender only, as dies, masculine and

feminine in the singular.

7. In termination and declension, as menda, æ; mendum, i.

8. In termination and gender, as tonitrus, ús, masculine—tonitru, neuter.

9. In declension and gender, as penus, i, or penus, is, masculine and feminine; and penum, i, or penus, oris, neuter.

10. In termination, declension, and gender, as ather,

ĕris, masculine; and æthra, æ, feminine.

11. In oblique cases, as Tigris, idis or is; Chremes,

Dares, Laches, Thales, have ētis or is.

12. Some adjectives abound in termination and declension, as declivus, -is; imbecillus, -is; semisomnus, -is; exanimus, -is.

II. VARIANTS.

1. In gender and termination.

Sing. Neut.

Elysium, i¹ Argos, (eos) i.

Frænum, Rastrum,

	O
Sing.	Plur.
Masc.	Neuter.
Avernus, Dindymus, Ismärus, Massicus, Mænälus, Pangæus,	a, orum.
Tænărus, Tartărus, Taygētus.	
Feminine. Carbăsus, Pergămus.	
Masculine	2.
Locus, Jocus,	i or a. i or a.
Masculin	e and neuter.

Sibilus -um.

Balteus -um.

Jugerum,
Of the
Vas,

4. The formula sense number tuna,

2. In gender and declension.
2 decl. neut. P.

Delicium,
Epulum,
Balneum,
w, (or, a of the second.)

Plur.

i, (or, a neut.)

i, (or, a neut.)

Masc.

3. In declension only. 2 decl.

Jugerum, a, of the third.

Of the third, neut.

a, orum, of the second.

4. The following vary their sense according to their number: rostrum, fortuna, facultas, mos, opis, adis or ades, sal, populus (populi, nations).

¹ Cali and calos from the obsolete calus are uncommon.

III. DEFECTIVES.

DEFECTIVES IN CASE,

1. Called aptotes, or indeclinables.

Nouns in u are indeclinable in the singular, but regular in the plural, as cornu; plural cornua, -uam, &c.

Most nouns in i are indeclinable in both numbers, as

gummi.

Cardinal numbers, likewise, from quatuor to centum.

Foreign words, like Job, Jerusalem, Abraham, Adam. Abraha, Ada, are borrowed from a Latin nominative in as.

Semis, frit, git, cepe, gausape, are singular aptotes.

Tot, quot, and compounds, totidem, aliquot, &c. plural aptotes.

Nequam and frugi are aptotes in both numbers.

Pondo is an aptote, added to both numbers. Duo pondo, two pounds.

Mille the adjective is a plural aptote of all genders.

Mille the substantive is an aptote in the singular; but regular in the plural: millia, -ium, -ibus.

Præsto is generally considered an adverb. Satis also.

2. Monoptotes, or words having one case.

Nominatives. Eos (though some give it Eois), damnas (an old law contraction for damnatus), inquies; the adjectives, exspes, and potis, pote.

Genitives. Dicis and nauci. Dicis gratia, for form's sake.

Res nauci, a thing of no value.

Datives. Such words as despicatui, ostentui, &c., but they are found in other cases.

Ablatives. Ergô (for the sake of), such verbals as accitu, natu, jussu, injussu, promptu, permissu, admonitu, &c. noctu. Diu and interdiu (in the day) are formed from dies, as noctu from nox, but they are considered adverbs.

Accusatives plural. Inficias, incitas or incita. Inficias eo, I deny. Ad incitas (calces, understood, or lineas), or incita (loca) redactus, reduced to wit's end: a metaphorical expression from a certain game: they come from the adjective incitus.

Ablative plural. Ingratiis, or ingratis.

Ablatives singular, and all the plural. Casse, coelite, annali, fauce, ambage. This last wants the genitive plural. Viscere is found; and the plural, viscera, complete. Viscus nominative and visceris genitive are perhaps obsolete.

3. Diptotes, words having two cases.

Nom. and Acc. Necesse, necessum, adjectives neuter; volupe, instar, hir (hiris seldom), astu, a city.

Nom. and Abl. Astus, astu (craft); siremps, sirempse.

Gen. and Abl. Impetis, impete, plur. impetibus; spontis, sponte; verberis, verbere; jugeris, jugere (both entire in the plural); compedis (seldom), compede, no genitive plural, but all the other cases.

Nom. and Acc. pl. Suppeties, suppeties; inferies, inferies.

Gen. and Abl. pl. Repetundarum, repetundis.

Nom. sing. and pl. and Vocat. sing. Mactus (magis auctus), macti, macte, a common word of encouragement.

4. Triptotes, words having three cases.

Nom. Acc. Voc. sing. Fas, nefas, nihil, nil; secus (an old word for sexus) and specus, when of the third declension and neuter; epos, cacoethes, hippomanes, and other Greek neuters in cs. See Pentaptotes.

Nom. Acc. Voc. pl. The neuters cete, Tempe, mele, pelage.

Nom. Gen. Acc. sing. Tantundem, tantidem.

Nom. Acc. Abl. sing. Mane. In ablative sometimes mani; vesper (vesperem seldom), vespere.

Acc. sing. and pl. Dicam, dicas. Dica nominat. is seldom

used.

Gen. Dat. Abl. sing.; Nom. Acc. Voc. pl. Feminis, -i, -e. femina.

Dat. Acc. Abl. sing.; the plural complete. Preci, -em, -e;

preces, -um, -ibus, &c.

Nom. Acc. Voc. pl.; all the singular. Rus, thus, fel, mel, hyems, hilum, solium, far, ebur, metus, and nouns of the fifth declension (except res and dies complete). The feminine, grates, has no singular.

5. Tetraptotes, words having four cases.

Nom. and Voc. singular wanting. Frugis, opis, pecudis, sordis (these have plural complete); ditionis (without plural); vicis (having all the cases plural but the genitive), and dapis; for daps is not usual: plural dapes entire.

6. Pentaptotes, words having five cases.

Gen. pl. wanting. Fax, fax, sol, vicis, labes, soboles, proles,
E

lux, os (oris). Necum and necibus are scarcely ever found. Chaos, melos, (cpos 1), are Greek nouns neuter, increasing in the genitive singular, and therefore belonging to the third declension. They have N. A. V. singular; and, as if from masculines of the second. chaos and melos have sometimes chao and melo in the dative or ablative. Melos has mele in the nom. acc. voc. pl.; and it is sometimes found to have melos masculine in the accusative plural. The word satias is said not to be found in the genitive singular. It is a contraction of satietas, -ātis. (See Declensions R. V. obs.) Vis seldom has the dative singular; vires, -ium, -ibus, plural complete. (See the Declension of Irregular Adjectives, note 1.) Nemo wants the vocative singular; and has no plural. Such words as qualis, quantus, quotus, &c. have no vocative.

2. DEFECTIVES IN NUMBER.

These have only the Singular².

Proper names, most names of places (except those which have only the plural), most names of virtues, vices, herbs, liquors, metals, abstract qualities, and many others which may be known by the sense: as *Hector*, *Dido*, *Italia*, *jus*-

2 This is the general rule, but it must be confessed to be very vague; for

many words belonging to these classes have the plural, such as:

2. The following names of herbs are found in the Plural.

Abrotonus	biblus	cytisus	lapsana	sagmen
absinthium	brassica	eruca	linum	sampsuchum
acanthus	bulbus	filix	lolium	satureium
aconitum	carduus	fænum	malva	serpillum
alga	casia	gramen	melissophyllon	sesamum
allium	centaureum	helleborus	mentha	stupa
amomum	cepe	intybum	nasturtium	thymus
anagallis	cicuta	intybus	ocymum	tribulus
anthyllis	colocasium	inula	papaver	verbena
6sparagus	coriandrum	juncus	porrus	ulpicum
betonica	corruda	lactuca	radix	urtica.
beta	cunila	lappa	ruts	

See Triptotes.

^{1.} Avena, cicer, faba, far, frumentum, faseolus, glans, hordeum, lupínus, pisum, vicia, most of which, however, are used in the singular when quantity is signified. Acus (chaff), farina, lomentum, furfur (bran), are generally singular. Furfur (a disorder) has the plural. Palea has the plural, though used, in the singular, for a quantity. Pollen has the plural. Piper and zinziber, with other names of spices, are singular only, except cinnamum.

titia, luxus, hyssopus, triticum, oleum, lac, aurum, senectus, macies, butījrum,

Aer	humus	omāsum	sitis
æther	jubar	penum or	supellex
album	justitium	penus	tabes
argilla	lardum	pelagus	tabum
barathrum	lethum	piper	venia
cestus	limus	plebs	ver
cœnum	lues	pontus	vespera
crocum	lutum	prolubium	veternum or
diluculum	mane	pubes	veternus
fimus	meridies	pulvis	virus
glarea	mundus (ap-	pus	viscum or
gelu	parel)	sabulum -o	viscus (glue)
glastum	muscus	sal (neut.)	vitrum
gluten -inum	nectar	salum	vulgus
gypsum	nemo	salus	zinziber.
hepar	nihilum	sanguis	
hesperus	nitrum	senium	

These, and some others, are sometimes found in the Plural.

Aer	gloria	pulvis	tellus.
bilis	labes	pix	[Nouns of
cholera	lux	quies	the 5th declen-
cutis	mel	ros	sion are seldom
fama	pax	sopor	found in the
fames	pituita	talio	plural.]

Caryophilli, croci, hyacinthi, rosæ, violæ, refer to the flowers. Plants yielding roots for food, often have the plural; Inulæ, napi, pastinacæ, rapa, raphani, siseres, are in Pliny.

3. Arena, cinis, lana; aqua, aura, cruor, fex, fluor, latex, liquor, mel, mucus, mustum, oesypum, saliva, spuma, sudor, vinum, ulva, urina; adeps, balsamum, cera, gumnis, medulla, pingue, used substantively, resina, thus; æs (for things made of that metal), electrum, orichalcum, stannum, bitumen, cæmentum, ebur, fumus, glarea, lignum, marmor, rubigo, succinum, sulfur, pecunia has pecuniæ (sums of money), nummus (money or coin).

4. The names of many affections of the mind; as algor, ardor, angor, calor, candor, contemptus, fastus, fervor, furor, horror, languor, livor, metus, mæror, pavor, pudor, terror, vigor; to which may be added, frugor, odor, stridor, nitor, pallor, pædor, rigor, splendor, squalor, tenor (tone or accent), tepor, tumor, and

many words of the like nature.

5. And although every abstract quality, metaphysically considered, must be singular; yet being considered as existing in a variety of subjects, their names are occasionally used in the plural number: hence, ambitio, avaritia, amaritudo, astutia, bonitas, elegantia, dementia, fortitudo, formido, gloria, ira, malitia, mors, sanctitas, sævitia, stultitia, vita, and many more of a similar kind, are found in the plural.

E 2

The following have only the Plural.

The names of several cities, books, feasts, and sciences: also most adjectives of number; as Athenæ, Thermopylæ, Parisii, Bucolica, Georgica; Baechanalia, Olympia; musica, grammatica; ambo, duo, tres, &c., pauci, singuli, bini.

Add the following:

Acta	facultates (re-	lustra (dens)	principia (for
adversaria		majores	the tent)
antes	fasces (a badge)	manes	pugillares
antæ -iæ	fasti and -us		quisquiliæ
apinæ	facetiæ	magalia, -ium	reliquiæ
argutiæ	feriæ	minæ	repotia
arma	fines(territory)) minores	rostra (the
æstiva	flabra	minutiæ	court)
Bona (goods)	fortunæ (es-	mœnia, -ium	sales (witti-
branchiæ	tate)	multitia	cisms 1)
brevia, -ium	furfures(scurf)	munia	salinæ
bellaria	gerræ	natales (birth)	scalæ
calendæ	hyberna	nonæ	scatebræ
cancelli	idus	nugæ	scopæ
cani	ilia, -ium	nundinæ	scruta
castra (camp)		nuptiæ	sponsalia, -ium
celeres	inferi	offuciæ (tricks)	stativa
clitellæ	induciæ	opes (riches)	superi
codicilli	induviæ	orgia	talaria, -ium
comitia	insecta	pandectæ	tenebræ
crepundia	insidiæ	parietinæ	tesqua
cunæ	justa	parapherna	thermæ
cunabula	lactes	penates	tori (muscles)
diræ	lamenta	plagæ (nets)	transtra ³
divitiæ	lapicidinæ	posteri	tricæ
excubiæ	lautia	phaleræ	trigæ
exequiæ	lemures	præcordia	valvæ
exta	lendes	prœbia	vergiliæ
exuviæ	luceres	primitiæ	vindiciæ.

¹ Cicero uses sal in this sense. Sales sometimes signifies salt.

³ Transtro is found in Perseus.

These and some others are sometimes found in the Singular.

Angustiæ mapalia quadrigæ crates decimæ narés salebræ artus operæ (work- tempora (temædes fores fori men) bigæ ples) furiæ primores plerique charites fruges proceres copiæ vepres. literæ (an epistle) præstigiæ cibaria

It may be observed that many of the foregoing are adjectives; such as bona, cani, adversaria, diræ, inferi, superi,

justa, majores, minores, posteri, stativa, &c.

PLURALS SIGNIFYING SINGULARLY.

The indefatigable Mr. R. Johnson has given, in his excellent Commentaries, the following list, confirmed by proper citations, of words which are sometimes found (especially among the poets) in the plural number, with the signification of singulars:—Alta (the sea), animi, auræ; carinæ, cervices (the neck), colla, comæ, connubia, corda, corpora, crepuscula, currus; exilia; frigora; gaudia, guttura; hymenæi; jejunia, judicia, ignes, inguina, jubæ; limina, littora; mensæ (a course or service of dishes); numina; odia, oræ, ora (plur. of os), ortus, otia; pectora; rictus (jaws of one creature, or of more), robora; silentia, sinus (the plait of a garment); tædæ, terga, tempora (time), thalami, tori, viæ, vultus, thura, amores (sweetheart), &c.

SINGULARS USED PLURALLY.

Certain nouns are sometimes elegantly used in the singular, with a plural signification, such as, miles for milites (the soldiery); eques for equites; Romanus for Romani; pedes for pedites, &c.

The adjective multus likewise; as in the examples, Quis multâ gracilis te puer in rosâ—Hor. Quam multo repetet Gracia milite—Hor. i. e. on many roses, or a bed of roses;

with many soldiers, or a large army.

PRONOUNS.

A pronoun is a word used, through necessity or for convenience, instead of a noun: it has gender, case, and number.

Pronouns are divided into four classes, viz.

1. Demonstratives; ego, tu, sui.

2. Relatives; ille, ipse, iste, hic, is, quis, qui.

3. Possessives; meus, tuus, suus, noster, vester.

4. Gentiles or Patrials; nostras, vestras, cujas.

Quis and cujas are called also Interrogatives.

The declension of all these has been shown, except that

of ego, tu, sui; and hic, is, quis and qui.

Ego, tu, sui, are substantives; they have no gender of their own, but assume the gender of the noun for which they are placed. They are thus declined:

	Sing.	Plur.	Sing.	Plur.	S	ing. & Plur.
N.	ĕgõ,	nōs,	Į tū,	võs,		-
		nostrum, ī,	tŭī,	vēstrum,	-ī,	sŭī,
D.	mĭhĩ,	nobis,	tĭbĩ,	võbīs,		sŭī, sĭbĩ, sē,
Ac.	mē,	nōs,	tē,	vōs,		sē,
V.		-	tū,	võs,		
Ab.	mē,	nobīs.	tē,	võbīs.		sē.

The preposition cum is put after these ablatives.

The compounds egomet, tutemet, suimet, are regular.

These are Monoptotes.

Nom. tute. Ac. sese, tete, the simple pronoun being doubled.

Hic, Is, Qui and Quis, are thus declined:

	Sing.			Plur.	
M.	F.	N.	M.	\mathbf{F}_{\bullet}	N.
N. hic,	hæc,	hõc,	hī,	hæ,	hāc,
G. hūjus,				hārum,	hõrum,
D. huic',			hīs,		
Ac. hunc,		hõc,	hōs,	hās,	hāc,
V		1			
Ab. hoc,	hāc,	höc,	hīs.		
	Sing.			Plur.	
M.	F.	n.	м.	F.	N.
N. ĭs,		N. ĭd,	ĭĩ,	F. ĕæ,	ĕă,
N. ĭs, G. ējŭs,	F.		ĭī, ĕōrum,	F. ĕæ, ĕārum,	
N. ĭs,G. ējŭs,D. ĕī,	F. ĕă,	ĭd,	ĭī, ĕōrum, ĭīs, vel	F. ĕā, ĕārum, ĕīs,	ĕă, ĕōrum,
N. ĭs, G. ējŭs, D. ĕī, Ac. ĕum,	F. ĕă,		ĭī, ĕōrum,	F. ĕæ, ĕārum,	ĕă,
N. ĭs,G. ējŭs,D. ĕī,	F. ĕă,	ĭd,	ĭī, ĕōrum, ĭīs, vel	F. ĕā, ĕārum, ĕīs, ĕās,	ĕă, ĕōrum,

Or heic, but less common.

Sing.				Plur.	
M.	F.	N.	M.	F.	N.
N. (Quĭs), Quĩ, G. Cũjŭs, D. Cūī¹,	(quie,	d <i>or</i> quŏd) quŏd,	Quoru	quæ, m, quāru s <i>vel</i> queis	quæ, m, quōrum
Ac. Quem,	quam,	quŏd (quĭd)		quās,	quæ,
V. Ab. Quō,	quā,	quō.	Quĭbŭs	s vel queī	S ₀

Qui is put for the ablative singular in all genders, rarely ablative plural. Cum is put after the ablatives of qui and quis.

COMPOUND PRONOUNS.

(1) Compounds of hic are: N. isthic, isthæc, isthoc vel isthuc. Ac. isthunc, isthanc, isthoc vel isthuc. Ab isthoc, isthac, isthoc. So illic. Hicce has all the cases that end in c or s, before ce²; and hiccine all the cases having c before cine.

(2) The compound of is is, idem, ĕădem, idem, which, like

quidam, changes m before d into n.

(3) Compounds of quis formed by prefixing ne, num, ec, si and ali (alius) to quis; or adding nam, quam, que, piam, or doubling quis, are: nequis, numquis, ecquis, siguis, aliquis; quisnam, quisquam, quisque, quispiam, quisquis. The compounds of quis, when quis is put last, have qua in the nominative singular feminine and neuter plural. Siquis and ecquis have qua or quæ. Quisquis is thus declined: N. quisquis, quidquid or quicquid. Ac. quidquid or quicquid. Ab. quoquo, quaqua, quoquo. Quisquam has quæquam, quodquam, and quidquam or quicquam: Acc. sing. quenquam, the feminine wanting. The plural is seldom used. Some are doubly compounded; as ecquisnam, used in the nominative only, and unusquisque, which wants the plural.

(4) The compounds of qui are quidam, quicunque, quivis,

and quilibet, which are regular.

All these pronouns want the vocative. Queis is not used in composition.

MONOPTOTES.

Gen. Fjusce, cujusce, hujusmodi, ejusmodi, cujusmodi, hujuscemodi. Ac. Eccum, eccam; eccos, eccas (from ecce, and is). Ellum, ellam; ellos, ellas (from ecce and ille).

Or cui, but less common.

² This is a common rule; but *hice* may be found in Terence, Eun. 2. 2. 38. *Horunce* and *harunce*, and, by apocope, *horunce* and *harunce* may likewise be found; but they are uncommons.

Abl. Pte is put after the ablatives meâ, tuâ, suâ, nostrâ, vestrâ, and sometimes after the masculine of these.

Observations on some pronouns.

(1) Aliquis and Quidam may be thus distinguished: the former denotes a person or thing indeterminately; the latter, determinately.

(2) Uter refers to two, and is therefore joined to compa-

ratives.

(3) Quis may refer to many, and is therefore joined with

superlatives.

(4) Hic and Ille are often found to refer to two words going before them. Hic refers to the latter; Ille to the former; but in a few instances, where no ambiguity is occasioned by it, this distinction is reversed.

(5) As demonstratives, *Hic* refers to the person nearest to me; *Iste* to the person nearest to you; *Ille* to any intermediate person. In the same manner *Hic* is for the first person; *Istic* for the second; *Illic* for the third.—*Is* may re-

fer to a person absent.

(6) Ipse and Idem are joined to any person. Ipse is often joined to the primitives ego, tu, ille, sui. It may agree with these; but when the nominative, and the word governed by the verb, refer to the same person, it is better to be put in the nominative; as, Mihi ipse placeo; Te ipse laudas; Cato se ipse occidit. It is often used emphatically, for per se; as, Ipse præfuit exercitui, He commanded the army in person.

(7) Ille denotes honour; Iste contempt.

(8) Tuus is used when we speak to one; as, Sumne, Coriolane, in tuis castris captiva, an mater? Vester, when we speak to more than one; as, Cives, miseremini cœli vestri.

(9) Omnis, Quisque, and Uterque, have been thus distinguished: Omnis and Quisque are generally used when we speak of more than two; Uterque always when we speak of two.

(10) Alter is in general applied to one of two; Alius to one of many. But Cicero uses Primus, Secundus et Alter. In general Alter when repeated is to be translated by the one and the other; but there is a passage in Cicero, in which the former Alter refers to the last antecedent; viz. Ut enim cum civi aliter contendimus, si est inimicus, aliter si competitor: cum altero (competitore) certamen honoris, cum altero capitis et fame. De Off. lib. 1, 12.—Alius is, in Cæsar,

¹ In such instances as—pintus et aer, Fluctibus hie tumidus, nubibus ille minur—Ovid. Sie deus et virgo est; hie spe eeler, illa timure—Ovid. the relative situations of the object, may have been regarded, not the position of the nouns in the sentence.

applied to one of two; as, Duas leges promulgavit; unam quæ mercedes habitationum annuas conductoribus donavit; aliam tabularum novarum. Cæs. 3. Bel. Civil. Alter is sometimes used like Alius.—When in a sentence alius is repeated, it is expressed in English by different terms corresponding with each other; such as one, another; some, others, &c. Thus, Alii domos, alii montes petebant, Some were going to their homes, and others to the mountains. Quorum alius, alia causa illata, petebat, Of whom one assigning one cause, another, another, asked; or Each of whom

assigning a different cause, asked.

(11) Quivis, any whom you please; Quisquam, any one; and Ullus, any, are thus used: Quivis affirms; as, Quidvis mihi sat est, Any thing pleases me. Quodvis pati mallem, I would rather suffer any thing. Ullus never affirms, but asks or denies, that is, it may be used in an interrogative sentence, or in a sentence negatively expressed: as also Quisquam. Thus, Nec ulla res ex omnibus me angit—Cic. Nor does any thing of all these things distress me. Nec quisquam corum to novit, Nor does any one of them know you. In an interrogative sentence; as, An quisquam dubitabit? Cic. Will any one doubt it? Ullus is used in the same way.

(12) Mei, tui, sui, nostri, vestri, the genitives of the primitives, are generally used when passion, or the being acted upon, is denoted; as amor mei, means, the love wherewith I

am loved.

(13) Meus, tuus, suus, noster, vester, the possessives, denote action, or the possession of a thing; as amor meus, is the love which I possess and exert towards somebody else. But these two distinctions are sometimes reversed: thus the first; Nam neque tuû negligentiû, neque odio id fecit tuû—Ter. Neither did he do it out of neglect towards you, nor of hatred towards you; in which the possessives tuû and tuû are used instead of tui, denoting the neglect with which you are neglected, and the hatred with which you are hated.

The second; Exumins tuivitâ pendere omnium—Cic. That the lives of all depend upon your life; in which tui is put instead of the possessive tuâ. Cicero uses insidia alicujus, passively, for the snares which are laid against a man, not

for those which a man lays.

(14) Adjectives, participles, and verbs, which have a genitive after them, take that of the primitives; as, Similis mei; memor nostri; observans tui; indigetis mei.

(15) Partitives, numerals, comparatives, and superlatives

take after them nostrům, vestrům; as, uterque nostrům; primus vestrům; major, maximus vestrům. But Cicero, in

his Orations, pays no regard to this distinction.

(16) The possessives often take after them ipsius, solius, unius, duorum, trium, &c., omnium, plurium, paucorum, cujusque, and the genitives of participles likewise; which words have a reference to the primitive understood; as, Dixi mea unius operâ rempublicam esse salvam—Cic. I said that the state was preserved by the service of me alone. Meum solius peccatum corrigi non potest-Cic. The offence of me alone cannot be amended. — Scripta cum mea nemo legat, vulgò recitare timentis—Hor. Since nobody reads the writings of me, fearing to rehearse them publicly. De tuo ipsius studio conjecturam ceperis—Cic. You may conjecture from your own study. In sua cujusque laude præstantior-Erasm. More excellent each in his own skill. Nostra omnium memoriá—Erasm. In the memory of us all. Vestris paucorum respondet laudibus-Cic. He answers to the praises of vou few.

It is evident, that to all these the primitive is understood: thus, Meum solius peccatum is the same as Mei solius peccatum; but, as meum was expressed, mei became unnecessary.

RECIPROCALS.

(17) Sui and Suus are called reciprocals, because they always refer to some preceding person or thing, generally the principal noun in the sentence: thus, Cæsar Ariovisto dixit, non sese (Casarem) Gallis, sed Gallos sibi (Casari) bellum intulisse, Cæsar told Ariovistus, that he had not made war upon the Gauls, but the Gauls upon him; in which se and sibi refer to Cæsar, the principal noun. But when different persons are spoken of pronominally, other pronouns are necessary for distinction's sake: thus, Cato confesses that he (Cato) has erred, Cato se peccasse fatetur. Cato thinks ill of Cæsar, and says that he (Cæsar) aims at a revolution; De Cæsare male sentit Cato; cum studere novis rebus arbitratur. Cato killed himself with his (Cato's own) sword; Suo se gladio confecit Cato. He killed himself with his sword (that is, with the sword of any body else); illius gladio se confecit.

These distinctions will be more fully explained by the

following remarks:

I. When he or his refers to the case which precedes the verb, sui and suas are used: as, Homo justus nihil cuiquam, quod in se transferat, detrahet—Cic.; in which se refers to

homo. Pythius piscatores ad se (Pythium) convocavit, et ab his petivit, ut ante suos (Pythii) hortulos piscarentur—Cic. Had the fishermen's gardens been intended, the expression would have been ante ipsorum hortulos. Change the nominative; Piscatores erant a Pythio rogati, ut ante suos hortulos piscarentur: here suos refers to piscatores; and if his is to refer to Pythius, it must be expressed by ante ejus hortulos. The noun preceding the verb is sometimes in the accusative: as, Dicunt Cererem antiquissimam a C. Verre cx suis templis esse sublatam—Cic.; in which suis refers to the accusative Cererem, which is virtually a nominative, and resolvable into quod Ceres &c. If I say C. Verres sustulit Cererem ex templis suis, suis refers to Verres the nominative; and if I wish to apply the pronoun to Ceres, I must say ex templis ejus.

In such sentences as, Pater jussit filio', ut iret in cubiculum suum, and, Verres rogat Dolabellam, ut de sua provincia decedat, in which there are two verbs, and two third persons, we must distinguish by the context which is the principal person, in order, generally, to refer the reciprocal to this as

its proper nominative.

II. The reciprocals may likewise be applied to the word which follows the verb, provided that it is capable of being turned into the nominative, without altering the sense: thus, Trahit sua quemque voluptas—Virg.; in which sua refers to quemque, the object of the verb, because it may become the subject, as in the equivalent expression, Quisque trahitur a voluptate suâ. In the same manner, Regis est gubernare suos; in which suos refers to regis, because we may say, Regis officium est ut (rex) gubernet cives suos. Hunc sui cives ejecerunt—Cic. Sui refers to hunc, because we may say, Hic ejectus est a suis civibus.

III. Provided no ambiguity should arise, the reciprocals may be used instead of relative pronouns; and especially when the first or second person is used: as, Gratias mihi agunt quod se (cos) meâ sententiâ reges appellaverim—Cic.; Suam rem sibi salvam sistam—Plaut.; in which ejus and ci might be used; Timet ne descras se, or, cam—Ter. Relatives may be used instead of reciprocals: as, Omnes boni, quantum in ipsis (or se) fuit, Cæsarem occiderunt—Cic.; Persuadent Rauracis ut una cum iis (or secum) proficiscantur—Cæs. Perfuga Fabricio pollicitus est, si præmium ci (or sibi,

¹ This is an uncommon construction; for although Tacitus says, Ubi Britannico jussit exurgere, jubeo has commonly the accusative and infinitive mood after it,

viz. perfugæ) proposuisset, se Pyrrhum venenô necaturum— Cic. Quapropter non petit ut illum (se) miserum putetis, nisi

et innocens fuerit-Quinct.

(1) Sometimes sui and ipse are applied to the same person, in the same sentence: as, Abisari Alexander nunciari jussit, si gravaretur ad se (Alexandrum) venire, ipsum (Alexandrum) ad cum esse venturum-Curt. Ei legationi Ariovistus respondit, si quid ipsi (Ariovisto) a Cæsare opus esset, sese (Ariovistum) ad eum venturum fuisse; si quid ille (Cæsar) a se (Ariovisto) velit, illum (Cæsarem) ad se (Ariovistum) venire oportere-Cæs. Sometimes the reciprocals refer, in the same sentence, both to the primary and secondary noun, especially when the latter becomes important, and no ambiguity is thereby produced. Thus Ariovistus tells Cæsar, Neminem secum sine sua pernicie contendisse; that no one had contended with him, without suffering his own ruin. Secum refers to Ariovistus; sua to neminem. It is evident that Ariovistus laid great stress on sua pernicie; and that these two words must refer to neminem, since it was Ariovistus himself who was then speaking, and whose destruction, consequently, could not, at that time, have taken

(2) Suus, Is, or Ipsc, may likewise be used, indifferently, in certain cases. We may say, Cepi columbam in nidô suô, or, in nidô ejus, or ipsius. The first is equivalent to, Columba a me capta est in nidô suô. And ejus or ipsius may be used, because nidus can refer to columba only. Suus may likewise be used for other pronouns, when its use cannot, from the sense, cause any ambiguity; as, in Virgil, when, speaking of Dido's nurse; he says, Namque suam patriâ, antiquâ cinis ater habebat, in which suam cannot refer to cinis ater, either according to the sense, or the gender used, but

evidently to her nurse.

Sui also; as, Dionysius filias suas tondere docuit, instituitque ut candentibus juglandium putaminibus barbam sibi, et capillum adurerent—Cic. Here sibi cannot refer to his daughters, although they are the nominative to adurerent, but to Dionysius himself, since his daughters, it is presumed, had no beard. Had the sentence been, Dionysius instituit ut filiæ suce capillum sibi adurerent, sibi must refer to filiæ, the nominative to the verb. To remove any ambiguity in this sentence, and to make his applicable to Dionysius, we should say, ut capillum ipsi adurerent.

(3) When two oblique cases are connected by a conjunction, the relative pronoun is rather to be used: as, Sup-

plicium sumpsit de fure et sociis ejus, not suis, lest suis should refer to he, the nominative to the verb. If the preposition cum be used, we generally say de fure cum sociis suis.

(4) If the nominative or accusative precede inter, the reciprocal sui only is used: as, the nominative; Fratres gemini inter se cum formâ tum moribus similes—Cic. The accusative; as, Feras inter sese partus atque educatio et natura conciliat—Cic. But when the genitive, dative, or ablative precede, sui, or, ipse, or sometimes iste, may be used; as, after the genitive, Una spes est salutis istorum inter istos dissensio—Cic. Inter se or ipsos might have been used. After the dative; as, Latissimè patens hominibus inter ipsos societas est hæc—Cic. After the ablative; as, In magnis quoque auctoribus incidunt aliqua vitiosa ctiam a doctis inter ipsos mutuò reprehensa—Quinct.

(5) Suus is sometimes put for unicuique proprius, peculiar: as, India mittit ebur, molles sua thura Sabæi—Virg. The country of the Sabæi was particularly famous for myrrh, cassia, frankincense, and such productions. It sometimes indicates fitness or congruity: as, Sunt et sua dona parenti—Virg. There are likewise for my father, fit, appropriate,

or suitable presents.

(6) Suus is often used without the substantive being mentioned to which it refers: as, Suum cuique tribuito, Give every man his own (thing, negotium). Sui responderunt, His soldiers or countrymen answered (cives or milites being under-

stood).

(7) The reciprocals alone, are used with quisque, and they generally are placed before it: as, Pro se quisque acriter intendat animum—Liv. Sua cujusque animantis natura est—Cic. Every animal has its own peculiar nature. Suus is put after quisque in this example from Virgil; Quisque suos patimur manes.

(8) Sibi and sometimes tibi, mihi, &c., though not indispensably necessary, are used for the sake of elegance: as, Suo sibi gladiô hunc jugulo—Ter. Ex arâ hinc sume tibi ver-

benas—Ter. Expedi mihi hoc negotium—Ter.

(9) The reciprocals may be applied to two distinct subjects coupled by a conjunction; as, *Inter se contendebant Indutiomarus et Cingetorix*—Cæs. The manner of using certain pronouns should be exemplified by such sentences as the following: "Quod ubi Cæsar rescivit; quorum per fines ierant his uti conquirerent et reducerent, si sihi purgati esse vellent, imperavit. Tulingos, et Latobrigos, in fines suos unde erant profecti, reverti jussit: Allobrogibus imperavit

ut his frumenti copiam facerent; ipsos, oppida vicosque quos incenderant, restituere jussit."—Cæs.

COMPARISON OF ADJECTIVES.

I. Regular comparison is made by adding to the first case of the positive in i, or for the masculine and feminine, and us for the neuter of comparatives; and -ssimus -a -um, for the superlative.

1. Some adjectives in *lis* change *is* into *limus* for the superlative; as *agil-is*, *facil-is*, *gracil-is*, *simil-is*, *humil-is*, *-limus*. *Imbecillis has -limus*, and from *imbecillus*, *-issimus*.

2. Adjectives in er, add to er, rimus, for the superlative.

Celer has, from celeris, sometimes celerissimus.

II. Adjectives in dicus, volus, ficus, loquus, change us into entior, and entissimus. Mirificus has mirificissimus or mirificentissimus.

IRREGULAR, DEFECTIVE, OR UNUSUAL COMPARISON.

Positive.	Comparative.	Superlative.
Adolescens,	adolescentior, *	
	anterior,	
	apricior, * †	
	bellior,*†	
•	melior,	* .
	citerior,	
Consultus,	consultior,*†	consultissimus.**
Crispus,	crispior, * +	crispissimus.*+
	deterior,*	
	dexterior,*	
	diversior,*†	
Dives, divitis	divitior* † cont.	divitissimus*+, cont.
	ditior,	
	diuturnior,*	
	exterior, *	
Fidus	fidior,*†	fdiccircus *
	jejunior, * †	
Inclustus	Jejumoi, T	inclutiesimus *
	inferior,*	
	infinitior,*+	
	interior,*	
	ingentior.*	
2.2000		•

Positive.	Comparative.	Superlative.
Invisus,	invisior,*+	invisissimus.*†
Invitus,	invitior,* †	invitissimus.*
Invictus,		invictissimus.*
	juniør,	
Licens	licentior,*	- Terrorina de la constanta de
	major,	
	. pejor,	
Maturus	maturior,*	maturrimus, -issimus *
Mellitus		mellitissimus.*
Meritus	****	. meritissimus.*
	plus (sing. neuter),	
	nequior,*	
Novus	,	novissimus.*
Nuperus	*****	nuperrimus.
	ocyor,	
	opimior, *	
Par.		parissimus.*
Parvus	minor,	minimus.
Persuasus.	•••	persuasissimus.*
Posterus	nosterior.*	postremus or postu-
Potis, pote (mo-		
nontate)	potior,*	notissimus.*
	pronior,*	
	prior,	
	propior,	
Sacer	propior,	sacerrimus*
Satur	saturior,*	- Succitification
Seney	senior,	•
DCIICA;	sequior,	•
	² satior	
	sinisterior,†	
vestris	silvestrior, *	
Supinus	supinior,*†	-
Superus	superior.*	supremus, summus.
Vetus	veterior.*	supremus, summus.
	ulterior,	ultimus.
	•	pared. Those marked+

Words marked* are regularly compared. Those marked; are not often found.

ADDITIONAL SUPERLATIVES WANTING.

Most adjectives in ilis and alis, and in bilis; as juvenilis,

Nequam forms its comparison as if from nequi the genitive.
 Satius only, I believe, is found.

civilis, capitalis, regalis, tolerabilis. Add also, arcanus, declivis, proclivis, longinquus, propinquus.

COMPARISON WANTING.

Participles in rus and dus, adjectives in bundus, imus, imus, orus, icus, and us after a vowel (except -quus), diminutives in lus (which are in reality a sort of comparison); as amaturus, amandus, pudibundus, limus, matutinus, odorus, famelicus, tenellus, dubius, have no simple comparison. Add to these, most nouns in ivus, and adjectives compounded of verbs and nouns; as fugitivus, versicolor, tardigradus, degener, consonus, pestifer, armiger; and almus, mirus, egenus, lacer, memor, sospes.

(1) Some adjectives in us pure, are found, having simple comparison, such as arduus, assiduus, exiguus, pius, perpetuus, strenuus, vacuus, to which add tenuis; but they have generally compound comparison, by magis and maxime.

The comparison of substantives, as Nero, Neronior; of pronouns, as ipse, ipsissimus; of words already compared, as proximus, proximior; postremus, postremissimus, is not to be imitated.

(2) When the adjective does not vary its termination in comparison², and the sense admits further intension, this is done by prefixing magis (more), and maximè (most); or, for diminution, minus (less), and minimè (the least). The comparison of eminence denoted by very (in adjectives likewise that are susceptible of terminational comparison) is made by valde and admodum, or by de, per, or præ prefixed; as deparcus, very sparing; per- or præ-facilis, very easy; permulti, very many; perpauci, very few³. In this state they admit no

1 Pientissimus is found in inscriptions.

In nearly a similar way may be explained, the manner in which certain comparatives seem greater than superlatives, in the following quotations from

Cicero :

"Ego autem hoc sum miserior quam tu, quæ es miserrima." "Persuade tibi te mihi esse charissimum, sed multo fore chariorem, si &c." In these sentences the superlative is to the comparative, as a sort of positive, upon which the comparative is formed.

³ Adjectives compounded with certain prepositions increasing or diminishing the signification of the simple noun, if the simple noun be in use and admit comparison, are seldom compared; such are prædives, prædurus; deparcus,

e It may be more a metaphysical than a grammatical remark, that, properly speaking, no words, but such as admit of further intension, can be compared. But, in English, the word perfect, and, in Latin, perfectus, plenus, satur, &c., are compared. It is evident, that nothing can be more perfect than perfection, nor more full than fulness. These words, therefore, do not increase upon the absolute sense of the positive; but, being compared, indicate a comparative increase over something not possessing the full quality implied in the positive, in its absolute and complete sense; and must, therefore, denote approximation or tendency. Thus, "One thing is fuller than another," must mean, that one thing approaches nearer to fulness than the other, and presupposes that neither is absolutely full.

simple comparison, although the word perpaucissimi, a very

very few, is found.

(3) When the superlative is wanting, the comparative is sometimes used in its stead: as, Adolescentiores apun, The younger or youngest of the bees. Juniores patrum, The youngest of the senators. In such instances, the bees and the senators are divided into two parties; and then the comparative is strictly applicable.

For the comparison of adverbs, see Adverbs.

OF THE VERB.

A Verb has been defined to be "that part of speech which signifies to be, to do, or to suffer:" or, more correctly, "that part of speech which predicates some action, passion, or state of its subject:" as, amo, vulneror, sto. Its essential service consists in affirmation, and by this property it is distinguished from every other part of speech.

To the verb belong, conjugation, voices, moods, tenses,

numbers, and persons.

OF THE DIFFERENT KINDS OF VERBS.

Verbs are either simple, as amo; or compound, as redamo. Primitive, as lego; or derivative, as lectito. Regular, as amo; or irregular, as volo; defective, as inquam; or redundant, as edo, I eat. Their termination is in o, as amo; in or, as amor; or in m, as sum.

Verbs have been likewise divided into substantive, and adjective. A substantive verb denotes the affirmation of being

or existence: as, sum, fio, existo.

An adjective verb denotes existence, but with the addition of some attribute or quality belonging to the subject: as, lego,

edurus; subhorridus, subtristis, &c. Except præclarus, which has both a comparative and a superlative. But præstans, præstablis, &c. which come immediately from verbs, admit comparison; to which add præsens, whose simple noun is not in use, and præfrædus, -ior, in which the signification of the simple noun is changed. The compounds of per derived from verbs follow the same rule as those with præ: thus may be found perquisitior, pervagatior, pervagatior, pervagatissimus, perjurior, perjurissimus, from perquiro, pervagor, perjuro or pejero. But when, for the sake of intension, per is prefixed to adjectives admitting comparison, it is joined only to the positive; as in percarus, perdiligens, perpulcher; nor are such words as percarior, -issimus, found. Vossius and Ursinus, however, contend that the superlative also admits per, from the supposed occurrence of perpaucissimus in Columella, R. R. iii. 20; of pertenuissimus, Senec. N. Quæst. ii. 10; of peroptimus, Plant. Mostell. iii. 1. 143; of perdifficillimus, Liv. xl. 21; of perplurimum, Plin. ii. 54. But better editions have, in these places, tenuissima, optimo, per difficillimum, plurimum.

I read, or am reading. In regard to their having a person as their subject, or not admitting one, they are divided into personal, and impersonal.

Personal verbs are divided into active, passive, neuter

(and neuter passive), deponent, and common.

A verb active is that which affirms that the person or nominative before it is doing something: as, amo, loquor, curro, I love, I speak, I run.

A verb passive denotes that the person or nominative, is suffering, or in the condition of being acted upon: as verbe-

ror, I am beaten.

A verb neuter denotes the state, posture, or quality of its nominative: as, palleo, I ampale; sedeo, I sit; gaudeo, I am glad.

The verb active may be considered as either transitive, or intransitive. When the energy or action passes from the agent to something else, the verb is transitive: as, amo, I love. Every active transitive verb is necessarily placed between two substantives, the agent or nominative, and the object or accusative. Thus when we say, "Achilles slew," our conception of the meaning is incomplete, till we supply "Hector," or some other object on which the agent acts; which, in Latin, is always expressed in an oblique case; as, Achilles interfecit Hectorem. Sometimes a clause or sentence supplies the place of this last: as Superbia fecerat, Pride had occasioned, What? ut have tibertas esset lactior—Liv.

When the energy does not pass from the agent to any extrinsic object, the verb is intransitive: as, curro, I run. This class contains verbs of loco-motion: as, co, redeo, ambulo, &c.;—verbs of internal or involuntary motion: as, stillo, cado, cresco, &c.;—verbs denoting certain employments: as, bajulo, fancror, regno, &c. These are sometimes classed with neuter verbs. It may be here observed, that some intransitive verbs, which, as such, cannot have an accusative after them, may be rendered transitive, and in this case have a passive voice, by means of a preposition prefixed to them, which gives to the verb a direction of its energy. Thus some of the compounds of eo: as, adeo (used passively chiefly in the third persons), ambio, circumco, coco (used chiefly with societas), ineo, obeo, prætereo, subeo, transeo. Some compounds of venio: as, circumvenio, invenio, prævenio, and convenio, which last is generally intransitive, and used passively chiefly in the perfect participle; with some others.

¹ Some of those intransitive verbs which seem to be rendered transitive, by a preposition, govern either an accusative, or the case of the preposition: as, Egres-sus fines—Sall, & Cass, Egredi veritatem—Plin. Urbe, tectis egredi—Cic. & Ov.

A neuter-passive verb is partly active, and partly passive, in termination; and is passive or neuter in signification: as, fio, factus sum, to be made: or neuter; as, audeo, ausus sum,

to dare; gaudeo, gavisus sum, to rejoice1.

A deponent verb has a passive termination, with an active, or neuter signification: as, loquor, I speak; morior, I die. It is a verb active, or a verb neuter, in or. It is called Deponent, from its having deposed or forsaken the active form.

A common verb has a passive termination, with an active and passive signification: as, *criminor*, I blame, *or* am blamed. It is generally considered as deponent, excepting in the perfect participle, which, in some verbs, has either an active, or a passive, signification.

Verbs receive different names, according to their various natures or tendencies.

Frequentatives denote frequency of action, and are formed from the supine of the primitive, by changing in the first conjugation, ātu into ito; and in the other conjugations, u into o; as clamito, dormito, pulso, from clamo, dormio, pello².

Inceptives denote an action begun, and going on, and are formed from the second person singular of the primitive

verb: thus, caleo, cales, calesco3.

¹ Fio, with vapulo and venco, words which, under an active termination, have the signification and construction of passive verbs, are sometimes named neuter-passives, and sometimes passive-neuters. To them have been added exulo, nubo, and licco; but these do not, as the former three, admit after them an ablative of the efficient cause with a or ab. Indeed, the real signification of nubo may perhaps be considered as active; and the other two seem to de-

note rather an accidental state, than actual suffering.

² Frequentatives end in to, so, xo, and, when deponent, in or: as, clamito, pulso, new, minitor. Nato, which comes from no, natu, is irregular in formation. Scitor, or, more frequently, sciscitor, comes from scio, scitu, or from scisco. Panito from paveo; sector from sequor; loquitor from loquor, are formed as if the primitives had pavitu, sectu, loquitu. Quarito, fundito, agito, and fluito, are formed from quaris, fundis, agis, and fluits, or, perhaps, from obsolete supines.—Some seem to be formed by changing u into ito: thus, from actu comes actito; from hassu, hassito; lectu, lectito; scriptu, scriptio, &c. But perhaps these may be formed from other frequentatives now obsolete; indeed, lecto and scripto are both in Horace.—From frequentatives are formed others: as, gero, gesto, gestio; jacio, jacto, jactito, &c. They are all of the first conjugation.

3 Inceptives are also derived from nouns, by changing the last vowel of the genitive into asco or csco: as, puerasco, ignesco, dulcesco, from puer, ignis, dulcis. They are neuter, and of the third conjugation. Those which are formed from nouns want the preterite and supine; the others borrow them

from their primitives.

Desideratives or meditatives denote desire, or an attempt, to do a thing, and are formed from the last supine of the primitive, by adding rio: as, esurio, I desire to eat, from edo, esu; cænaturio, I desire to sup, from cæno, cænatu.

Diminutives generally end in *llo*, and diminish the signification of the primitive: thus, *cantillo*, I sing a little, from

cano; sorbillo, I sup a little, from sorbeo.

There are some verbs in sso, derived from other verbs, whose precise import and signification are not ascertained among grammarians: such as, capesso, facesso, petesso, arcesso, incesso, lacesso. Capesso and facesso are termed inchoatives, or words importing the commencement of going; thus, capesso, I am going to take; facesso, I am going to make; to which some add viso, I am going to see. Ursinus calls them, with greater propriety, intensives: thus, capesso and facesso mean, I am taking, or doing, a thing in an earnest or urgent manner; thus also, petesso, I very much desire.

Incesso and lacesso may be reckoned frequentatives. Arcesso, incipisso, vibrisso, have nearly the same signification as their primitives.

OF VOICES.

A voice is that accident of a verb, which denotes whether an action or energy is confined to the agent or nominative: as, cado, I fall; or is exerted by the nominative upon an external object, as Amo virum, I love the man; or is exerted by an external object upon the nominative, as Vir amatur, The man is loved.

As only active transitive verbs exert an energy on extrinsic objects, and cause suffering, so these only admit a passive voice. The voices are two, the active and passive; the one

in o, as amo; the other in or, as amor.

As an active verb denotes that the nominative to it is doing something, and a passive verb, that it is suffering; hence, to distinguish whether an English verb is to be rendered, in Latin, in the active or passive voice, nothing more is necessary than to consider whether the nominative be doing or suffering; Exa. John is building, Joannes ædificat. The wall is building, Murus ædificatur. The English is the same in both examples, but in the one, John is active; in the other, the wall is passive.

OF MOODS.

Action and states of being may be predicated, as either certain or contingent, free or necessary, obligatory or optional; hence arises the accident or circumstance of verbs, called a mood or mode.

There are four moods: the indicative, the subjunctive,

imperative and infinitive.

The indicative asserts, and interrogates; as Amo, I love; Non amo, I love not; Dixit aliquid? Did he say any thing?

When the sense is purely indicative, and the second form of the verb is subjoined to some conjunctive, adverbial, or indefinite term, the mood is said to be subjunctive; as Eram miser, cum amarem. When I was in love. In tantâ paupertate decessit, ut qui efferretur vix reliquerit—Nep. that he scarcely left.—When the word expresses what is contingent or hypothetical, having the same signification as debeo. volo, possum, with an infinitive, and thus denoting duty, will, ability, or liberty, the mood is, strictly speaking, potential. When subjoined, it has been termed the subjunctive potential.—When it denotes a wish, the mood is said to be optative. It may be remarked, however, that when the second form of the verb is used potentially or optatively, the expression is, probably, elliptical; and that the periphrasis with possum, volo, licet, &c., is employed, and not this form of the verb, when the proposition is absolute and independent, or where the power, liberty, will, or duty, is to be emphatically expressed 1.

The imperative commands, entreats, or permits.

The infinitive expresses the mere energy of the verb, and has neither number, person, nor nominative before it; but approaches nearly to the signification of a verbal noun.

OF TENSES.

As all verbs have their essence in motion or in rest, and as motion and the privation of it imply time, so verbs come to denote time. And hence the origin and use of tenses, which are so many different forms assigned to every verb, to show the various times in which the attribute expressed by that verb may exist.

The tenses are five: the present, preterimperfect, preter-

perfect or preterite, preterpluperfect, and future.

[§]¹ For an able and elaborate explanation of the nature and use of the subjunctive and the potential mood, see Crombie's Gymnasium, 2nd ed, vol. ii p. 320.

OF NUMBERS AND PERSONS.

A personal verb admits a person or a thing as its subject or nominative. As one or more persons may speak, be spoken to, or spoken of, there are two numbers; the singular, which speaks of one, and the plural, which speaks of more than one; and three persons in each number. Ego, tu, ille or illa, are the first, second and third persons singular; nos, vos, illi or illa, the first, second and third persons plural; and to each of these the verb has appropriate variations in its termination: thus, Ego amo, I love; Tu amas, Thou lovest, &c. Two or more persons may become the subject; but, as the first person is preferred to the second, and the second to the third, ego joined to tu or ille is equivalent to nos; tu joined to ille or illi, to vos.

All nouns in the singular, belong to the third person singular; those that are plural, to the third person plural.

Pronouns, participles or adjectives, having nouns understood to them, belong to the third person.

Qui takes the person of the antecedent.

Ipse may be joined, according to the sense, to any person.

OF PARTICIPLES, GERUNDS, AND SUPINES.

To verbs belong participles, gerunds, and supines.

A participle is a part of speech derived from a verb, partaking of the nature of the verb, and of an adjective; of the latter, as agreeing with a noun; of the former, as being distinguished into different times, and governing the same case as the verb, but differing from it in this, that the participle implies no affirmation.

Gerunds are so called because they signify the thing as it were in gerendo (antiently written gerundo), and, along with

the action, convey an idea of the agent.

A gerund is a participial noun, of the neuter gender, and singular number, declinable like a substantive, having no vocative, construed like a substantive, and governing the case of its verb.

A supine is a verbal substantive, of the singular number, and fourth declension, having the same signification as the verb. There are two; one in *um*, called the first supine, which governs the case of the verb, and is supposed to be an accusative; another in *u*, called the second supine, supposed to be an ablative, governing no case, and generally having a passive signification.

There are four participles; one ending in ans or ens, and another in rus, both generally active;—one ending in dus, always passive; and another ending in tus, sus, or xus (and one participle in uus, mortuus), generally passive, but sometimes active, or common, according to the nature of the verb.

Active verbs have two participles: the present ending in

ns, as amans; the other in rus, as amaturus.

Verbs passive have two: one ending in tus, sus, or xus, as amatus, visus, flexus; the other in dus, as amandus.

Neuter verbs have two participles: as sedens, sessurus.

Active intransitive verbs have frequently three: as carens, cariturus, carendus; and sometimes four, as jurans, juratu-

rus, juratus, jurandus.

Neuter-passive verbs have generally three: as gaudens, gavisus, gavisurus; audens, ausus, ausurus—from gaudeo and audeo. Audendus is found in Livy. Fido has only fidens and fisus; soleo, solens and solitus. Fio, though ranked among these, is a passive verb, and has four participles!

Deponent verbs of an active signification have generally four participles; as sequens, secuturus, secutus, sequendus,

from sequor.

Those of a neuter signification have generally but three; as labens, lapsus, lapsurus, from labor. But fruendus, fungendus, gloriandus, medendus, potiundus, vescendus, utendus, are found; the reason of which is, that their verbs originally governed an accusative, or were considered as active.

Common verbs have generally four participles: as dignans, dignaturus, dignatus, dignandus, from dignor. Their perfect participle sometimes signifies actively, and sometimes passively: as, Adeptus victoriam, Having obtained the victory, or Victoria adepta, The victory being obtained.

All participles are adjectives; those ending in ns of the

third declension; the rest, of the first and second.

Gerunds and supines come from active, neuter, and deponent verbs: as, docendum, currendum, loquendum; lectum, lectu; cubitum, cubitu; deprecatum, deprecatu—from docco, lego, cubo, deprecor.

Diomedes mentions fiens as the present participle of fio. Fio is now considered as the passive voice of facio, which has two active and two passive participles, faciens, facturus, factus, faciendus, the two last being formed from the antient factor.

OF THE USE AND SIGNIFICATION OF THE TENSES.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

Present Tense.—Amo.

as, adificat, he builds; domus adificatur, the house is building. Historians and poets sometimes describe past actions, in this tense, in order to give animation to their discourse, by bringing them, as it were, under immediate observation. Thus Livy; Ad equites dictator advolat obtestans ut ex equis descendant. Dicto paruere, desiliunt ex equis, provolant in primum, et pro antesignanis parmas objiciunt. The dictator flies forward to the cavalry, beseeching them to dismount from their horses. They obeyed; they dismount, fly forward to the front, &c. It may be observed that both present and past tenses are used together; as paruere in the last sentence.

2. Any general custom, if still existing, may be expressed in this tense: thus, Apud Parthos signum datur tympano, et non tubá—Justin. Among the Parthians the signal is given

by the drum, and not by the trumpet.

3. Those truths which are at all times true, are generally expressed in this tense: as, Ad pænitendum properat, citò

qui judicat. He hastens to repent, &c.

4. In Latin, as in English, this tense may express futurity: as, Quàm mox navigo Ephesum—Plaut. As soon as I sail, or shall sail, &c.

Preterimperfect tense.—Amabam.

1. The preterimperfect expresses an action as passing, some time ago, but not yet finished; as adificabat, he was building; domus adificabatur, the house was building. Ibam forte via sacra—Hor. I was going accidentally, &c. Irruerant Danai, et tectum omne tenebant. And were, at a certain time referred to, in possession of the house.

2. It likewise denotes what is usual or customary: as, legebat, aiebat, he was wont to read, he was wont to say. In agmine nonnunquam equo, sæpius pedibus anteibat—Suet. He was wont to go, or in the habit of going; or, as it is sometimes expressed in familiar language, he would go before,

&c.

3. It is sometimes used instead of the imperfect subjunctive: as, Anceps certamen erat, ni equites supervenissent, The battle had been, or would have been, esset.

Preterperfect tense.—Amavi.

1. When we mean to say that an action was completed in past time without particular reference to the present, a circumstance which is expressed in English by a perfect generally ending in cd; or that an action was finished in any portion of a space of past time which is bounded by the present, and not supposed or considered to be interrupted by any intervening circumstance, which is expressed in English by have and the perfect participle, we use the preterperfect tense: as, amavit, he loved, or has loved. Orationem hujuscemodi habuit—Sall. He made a speech, &c.

Tum freta diffudit, rapidisque tumescere ventis Jussit, et ambitæ circumdare litora terræ—Ov.

Then he poured out—and ordered, &c. Themistocles ad te veni. I Themistocles have come to you. Hujus ad memoriam nostram monumenta manserunt duo—Nep. Have re-

mained, &c.

The indefinite time of this tense is sometimes coupled with the passing time of the imperfect: as, Conticuere omnes, intentique ora tenebant—Virg. All preserved silence, and were keeping &c. Themistocles unus restitit; et universos parcs esse aiebat; dispersos testabatur perituros—Nep. Although the action implied in both perfects may have existed prior to that which is contained in the imperfects, (which tense may be used to show that the action was continued and progressive,) yet it appears, that afterwards, notwithstanding the diversity of tenses, the progression of the action of both is contemporary.

2. This tense is sometimes used, like the present, to express an action of that kind which may be mentioned in any time: as, *Neque ille aut* doluit *miserans inopem, aut* invidit *habenti*;—in which the feelings resulting from the principles of a Stoic, at all times the same, are here expressed by Virgil,

in past time.

3. It is sometimes used instead of the pluperfect indicative: as,

Quæ postquam evolvit, cæcoque exemit acervo, Dissociata locis concordi pace ligavit—Ov.

Which after he sorted (had sorted) and took (had taken) from the confused mass, &c.

4. It is poetically used instead of the imperfect, or pluperfect subjunctive: as, Nec veni nisi fata locum sedemque dedissent—Virg, Neither would I have come, venissem.

5. In verbs in or, this tense is double: as, amatus sum, vel

fui. It has been generally supposed that the former of these two expressions is used when we mention an action past, without any regard to the precise time: as, Domus est adificata. The house was built; and that sometimes it expresses time just past, and consequently bounded by the present: and that Domus ædificata fuit implies that the house was built, that is, was finished at some remote period of time; but many instances can be produced of the promiscuous use of these two forms 1. Thus, Filius huic fato divim prolesque virilis nulla fuit, primaque oriens erepta juventa est-Æn. Was snatched away, &c. Occisus est 45 imperii anno-Eutr. He was slain. In quibus es venata montibus—Ov. Have you been hunting. Tune es quæsita per omnes, nata, mihi terras-Ov. Have you not been sought for, &c. Assuetus studiis mollibus ipse fui—Id. I have been accustomed, &c. Janua sed nullo tempore aperta fuit—Ov. Has been. Neque vero non fuit apertum-Nep. Was it evident, &c. But some of these may be considered as adjectives.

In some verbs the distinction seems to be maintained.

Linacer says that *pransus sum* denotes an action immediately past; *pransus fui*, an action past at some distance of time. And Cicero uses the expression, *Qui in patriâ funditùs delenda* occupati *ct* sunt, *ct* fuerunt. Who are employed, or have been employed (up to the present time),

¹ The promiscuous interchange of several tenses which appear to be different in their nature and conformation, may have arisen from a variety of causes.

1. From the impossibility of fixing a standard, by a reference to which the different kinds and minute gradations of time might be ascertained. All kinds of time are relative, and to be ascertained by some fixed boundary. The present time has been adopted as this boundary, that which is on one side being called past time, and that which is on the other, future time. But it happens, that, as time cannot be arrested, this boundary itself is every moment shifting, and what was future the last moment, is present this moment, and is, at the commencement of the next, added to the past; the fact being that present time, (although we speak of the present moment,) like a mathematical point, can have its momentary existence in idea only.

2. In relating past events it sometimes happens, that this portion of time

2. In relating past events it sometimes happens, that this portion of time which we denominate present, and by which other times are to be ascertained, is supposed fixed at different periods. We sometimes relate past actions, as if, while we are speaking, we were transferred back, and were present during the time of their being carried on; or, which is nearly the same, we bring them forward, and relate them in present time, as if they were happening during

the time of recital.

3. When the sense has not been rendered ambiguous by the use of one tense instead of another, they may have been used promiscuously; but this

does not prove the identity of their significations.

4. An inaccuracy in ascertaining the real import of some Latin tenses may have arisen from the ambiguous, or various ways, in which we express the import of certain tenses, in our own language. Thus, amor is expressed by I am loving, I am a-loving, I am in-loving (all understood passively, in the same way as, when we say, He is training, or in-training, we mean the person is under a certain regimen). I am in the state of being loved, and meanly. I am loved Sec. Anadar has been expressed, as the former, I was

and who were employed (at some remote time past). It has been remarked that *sum* and *eram* with the perfect participle are commonly used to constitute the perfect and pluperfect, passive; *fui* and *fueram*, very seldom.

The Preterpluperfect tense.—Amavcram.

1. When we mean to say that an action was completed, before some other action took place, which also is past, we use the preterpluperfect tense: as, *adificaverat*, he had built. Before the succours arrived, he had conquered the enemy

--- hostes superaverat.

2. It is sometimes used among poets, and prose writers too, for the perfect indicative, and pluperfect subjunctive: as, Dixeram a principio, ut de republicà sileretur—Cic. I have said, &c. Si mens non læva fuisset, impulerat, &c.—Æn. He would have impelled, impulisset, or, according to the same idiom in English, had impelled, &c.

3. In verbs in or this tense is double: as, amatus cram, vel fucram, the former denoting that I was loved at some time past; the latter, that I had been loved before some time past. But like the compound perfect, both forms (of which the first is the more common) are used promiscuously, accord-

ing to the common signification of the pluperfect.

4. In some instances the participle seems to be considered as little different from an adjective, and then *cram* is trans-

loving, I was in-loving, I was being loved, I was in the state, or custom, of being loved, I was loved, &c. Now, it is evident that, in such expressions as I am loved, the house is built, he was loved, loved and built refer to an action completed, and are inapplicable to an action incomplete and progressive, such as must be predicated in that tense which expresses action going on, and not finished; for, in amor, the suffering is unfinished, progressive and present, and not perhaps to be clearly expressed in English by the perfect participle, without circumlocution. Amabar likewise denotes an action that was passing; but in I was loved, as in I am loved, the suffering is finished, the one in past time indefinitely, and the other in past time connected with present time. The progression of action can be indicated only by the participle in ing: as, The house is building, Domus ædificatur. But as this participle has both an active and a passive signification, its use in this way often becomes ambiguous, and the meaning is then to be discovered by an examination of the context. Indeed, if we say The man is teaching, is murdering, or is esteeming, we are invariably inclined to consider the man as acting, not acted upon; for whether it arises from habit, or from something in the nature of this participle, it is difficult to be reconciled to the use of it in a passive sense, when the subject is a person; and, as has been already observed, if we use loved, esteemed, we do not mark progression exclusively. But, when the historian is relating past actions, in present time, he uses with great propriety the perfect participle: thus, In quo facto domum revocatur, accusatus capitis absolvitur; multatur tamen pecunio, &c .- Nep. He is recalled home, -he is acquitted, -fined, &c. For some further remarks on this subject, see Grant's English Grammar, pp. 57, 64, 65, 85, 86. It would, there, appear, that the perfect participles of verbs of feeling imply progression, or do not necessarily indicate cessation.

lated was: as, Neque id tam Artaxerxi, quam cateris erat apertum—Nep. Neither was that evident, &c. Finitusque nova jam labor artis erat—Ov. And the labour of the new art was now finished. Prima luce ex superioribus locis, quae Casaris castris erant conjuncta, cernebatur equitatus—Casa. Which were next to, or adjoining to.

The Future tense.—Amabo.

1. This tense is used when we mean to express that an action will be going on, some time hence, but not finished: as Cænabo, I shall sup, or be supping; Domus ædificabitur,

The house will be building.

2. In Latin, as in English, the second person of this tense is used imperatively; as in the divine precepts, Non occides, non furaberis, &c. Thou shalt not kill, steal, &c. It is used by profane writers likewise: as, Tu hæc silebis; Ciceronem puerum curabis, et amabis—Cic. You will keep these things secret; you will take care, &c.

The tense, as used in this last sentence, seems half imperative, and half future; the former, as conveying, very faintly and delicately, a desire that the things may be done; and the latter, as intimating the idea or belief that they will be

done.

ADDITIONAL REMARKS ON THE TENSES, AND ON THE IDIOM OF CERTAIN ENGLISH TENSES.

The present, the imperfect, and the future tenses, are used when we mean to express that an action is, was, or will be, going on. The perfect, pluperfect, and perfect future (sometimes called the second future, and sometimes, though improperly, the future subjunctive, under which title it will be hereafter explained) are used when we mean to ex-

press the perfection of an action.

According to the idiom of the English language, it sometimes happens that those actions which, in English, are predicated in the three latter tenses are expressed, in Latin, by the three former: thus, when we mention that an action has existed for some time, and is still continuing, we use, in English, the perfect; but in Latin, the present. And if, in English, the pluperfect has been used, in Latin the imperfect is used. Thus, I have been, and still am, is expressed in Latin by the present. I had been, and, at a particular time, was, is expressed by the imperfect. Exa. Plus jam sum

¹ It is not improbable that this peculiarity in the English tenses arises from the nature of the auxiliaries. For, although have joined to be n, or to any perfect participle, constitutes a past tense, have is the present tense of a verb,

libera quinquennium—Plaut. I have been free more than five years. Una cum gente tot annos bella gero—Æn. I have been waging war (and now am), &c. Audiebat jamdudum verba querentis Liber—Ov. Had heard, or been hearing, and, at a certain past time, was hearing. Te annum jam audientem Cratippum—Cic. You who have been attending to (and are still attending to) Cratippus. Huic legioni et Cæsar indulserat præcipuè, et propter virtutem confidebat maximè—Cæs. He not only may have had great confidence in it, but still did confide in it. The tokens of esteem and kindness which he might have shown, had occurred some time ago. They were transient and occasional; but his confidence was still existing, and was permanent and habitual.

A similar analogy exists in regard to the future; for that action which, in English, is expressed in the perfect future, is expressed, in Latin, by the future: as, Tomorrow we shall have been three months in town. Cras erimus tres menses in urbe.

To the foregoing observations there are very few exceptions.

OF WHAT HAS BEEN TERMED THE FALSE SUBJUNCTIVE.

In Latin, some indefinite words and adverbial conjunc-

and denotes present possession. In the same manner, had, which, with a perfect participle, constitutes the pluperfect, is, in itself, the perfect of the verb have, and denotes merely past possession: thus, I have been free more than five years, means I now possess the action expressed by been-free, i. e. the action, or rather the condition, of liberty, the existence of which is perfected. I had been free more than five years, when a certain event happened, means I possessed, as in the former example, the perfected existence of more than five years' liberty, and at a time too identical with that of the other event—Eram liber. Tomorrow I shall have been five years free, means I shall possess the perfected existence of five years' liberty—Ero liber.

The idiom of the German is the same as that of the English, in which have and had, and, in some verbs, am and were, with the participle, constitute the perfect and pluperfect, as our have and had. Thus, How long have you been in London? Wie lange sind sie zu London gewesen? How long had you been

in London, when-Wie lange waren sie zu London gewesen, da-

The idiom of the Greek is the same as that of the Latin: thus, Πρὶν ᾿Αδραὰμο γινίσθαι, ἰγώ ἰμμι, John viii. 58, translated, according to the Greek idiom, Before Abraham was, I am; but expressed according to the English idiom, it should be, Before Abraham was [born], I have been, or I have existed.

The modern languages, derived from the Latin, follow, I believe, the Latin idiom. Of the Spanish and the French, I can speak with a little certainty. Thus, How long have you been employed in this business? is expressed in Spanish by, Quanto tiempo ha que està Vm. empleado en este asunto? In French by, Combien y a-t-il que vous êtes employé dans cette affaire? How long had you been employed in this business, when—? In Spanish, Quanto tiempo habia que estaba Vm. empleado en este asunto, quando—? In French, Combien y avoit-il que vous étiez employé dans cette affaire, quand—?

tions may govern the subjunctive, when the sense is unconditionally assertive, or indicative. Certain conjunctions also require the subjunctive mood after them, independently of the sense. In English, conjunctions, as has been remarked by Dr. Crombie in his learned and ingenious treatise on the Etymology and Syntax of the English Language, govern no mood, the sense alone determining the mood that should follow them. Hence it happens, that, in Latin, certain indefinite words and adverbial conjunctions 1 may, and certain conjunctions must, govern the subjunctive, when, in the English, the use of the subjunctive would, according to the nature of the language, be inconsistent with, or not clearly expressive of, the meaning intended to be conveyed; and from these circumstances, arising from contrasting the different ways of using the same mood in the two languages, has originated what has been improperly named, in Latin, the false subjunctive.

The following are examples:—Rogas me quid tristis ego sim.—Ter. Why I am sad. Quam dulcis sit libertas, breviter proloquar—Phædr. ——how sweet liberty is. Quum Cæsar hæc animadvertisset. Had observed. Adeo benevolus erat, ut omnes amarent. That all men loved him. In all these examples the verb is really subjunctive. In many instances the meaning may be sufficiently obvious, whichever mood may be used in English: thus, Vehementer cos incusat; primum quòd, aut quam in partem, aut quo consilio ducerentur, sibi quærendum, aut cogitandum, putarent—Cæs. Into what part, or with what design, they were, or might be, con-

ducting (being conducted).

POTENTIAL AND SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD.

Present tense.—Amem.

The present tense expresses contingency going on either in present or future time. It has generally the signs may,

¹ It appears to me that, strictly speaking, the real government of conjunctions is seen only in what is termed the false subjunctive. In such expressions as, Lego ut discam, Oro ut redeat, it is evident, that, independently of the conjunction, the sense requires the potential mood. Not so, in such expressions as, Advo benevolus crat ut omnes amarent, That all men loved him; for here the sense is purely assertive, or indicative, and yet the conjunction ut, by its own power, causes the verb to be put in the subjunctive; and indeed, although, in speaking of these two moods, their names are generally used indifferently, their terminations being the same, this seems the real character of the subjunctive, its proper English being indicative thus we say in the present also, Tam dives es ut nescias, You are so rich that you know not—not that you cannot, or may not, know.

might, could, can, would, should: and in many instances is equivalent to the verbs debeo, possum or licet, and volo, with an infinitive, either in interrogative, or declarative sentences. Mediocribus, et quis ignoscas vitiis tencor—Hor. Which you may excuse. Quam sancte jurabat, ut quivis facile possit credere—Ter. Might believe; not may. Orat a Casare ut det sibi veniam—Cas. He begs of Casar that he would give him leave.

Debeo implied.

Quid me ostentem?—Cic. Why should I boast?

Possum.

Plures reperias ad discendum promptos. You may find many ready, &c. Tamen ea faciatis e quibus apparent voluptatem vos, non officium, sequi. By which it may appear that ye pursue pleasure, &c. Non habes quid arguas—Cic. You have nothing which you can blame.

This tense has this meaning, when the clause of the potential signifies end, or purpose, with ut, quo, ne: as, Lego

ut discam, I read that I may learn.

Volo.

Quod si hæc urbs vocem emittat, non hoc pacto loquatur? Would it not speak?

This tense may be used,

1st. When the clause of the relative is the predicate: as, Erunt qui audaciam ejus reprehendant—Cic. There will be persons who will censure (or blame) his boldness. Here the verb is subjunctive.

2dly. When the clause denotes the end or effect of some former verb: as, Nunquam efficies ut judicem. You will

never cause me to judge.

3dly. When the clause is indefinite: as, Nescio ubi sit. I know not where he is.

denotes present ability; could and could have, past ability. Would and should, the preterites of will and should, denote, the one, past volition, and the other past obligation. But might, could, would, and should, though preterites, are used to denote present time likewise; but in this case congruity in the tenses must be observed. Thus I may say—"I may go if I choose," or, "I might go if I chose." In the former, the liberty and inclination are each expressed as present. In the latter, although liberty and inclination be expressed in the preterite, present time is implied. Thus also in Latin, the imperfect potential expresses present time: as, Irem si vellem, I might go if I chose.—The depending action, which, in English, is expressed by an Infinitive, is future, or subsequent to the time expressed by the auxiliary; hence it is, that the potential mood implies, in regard to execution, futurity. The modal time, however, depends upon the leading words which are implied in the signification.

4thly. When the clause signifies a probable consequence of a conditional or contingent event: as, Nam si altera illa magis instabit, forsitan nos rejiciat—Ter. He perhaps will

(may) reject us.

5thly. It is used elegantly after fore or futurum esse, and when the following verb wants the future participle: as, Confido fore ut utamur alio genere literarum. I trust that we shall use another kind, &c. 'In spem veniebat, fore, uti pertinaciá desisteret—Cæs. That he would desist.

6thly. It is generally used in interrogative sentences, when in English we employ shall, a sign of the future tense. Thus eamne? Shall I go? Quid si non veniet, maneamne usque ad vesperum?—Ter. Shall I remain? The reason of this usage seems to be that shall, originally equivalent to I owe or I ought, is implied in this tense. Thus, Quid faciam? i. e. Quid facere debeo? What shall I do? or, what ought I to do? Non eam? Nonne ire debeo? Should I not go? Ought I not to go?

When the present potential implies volo, the will is generally signified as present, and the execution as future; and, therefore, the thing may be expressed in the present poten-

tial, or in the future indicative.

In regard to such examples as *Rogo ut* facias, I request that you will do it,—it may be observed, that, although the execution of the request must be future in regard to the request itself, yet as the one may be supposed immediately to follow the other, so as in the mind of the speaker to be almost contemporary events, the Latins expressed it in the present tense.

Preterimperfect tense.—Amarem.

The imperfect is used to signify a contingent passing event, either in past, present, or in future time. Si fata fuissent, ut caderem, meruisse manu—Virg. If it had been my fate that I should fall. Utinam jam adesset—Cic. I wish he were now present. Si possem, sanior essem—Ov. If I could, I would be wiser. Adolescenti ipsi eriperem oculos: post hac pracipitem darem—Ter. I would tear out the eyes of the young man himself, and afterwards would throw him down headlong.

It likewise seems in some instances to imply possum, volo,

and debeo.

Possum.

Putares nunquam accidere posse, ut verba mihi deessent—Cic. You might think.

Volo.

Egone istuc facerem? Would I do that?

Debeo.

Non venirem? Should I not come?

The use of this tense, as well as of the present, depends

upon the tense of the preceding verb.

If the clause depend upon a verb implying past time, or upon a future infinitive governed by a verb of past time, this tense is used: as, Rogavi ut faceres, I requested you to do it. In spem veniebat fore ut desisteret, He was in hopes he would desist. The sense will point out the exceptions; as, Mortuus est ut nos vivamus, He died that we may live. When the sense of the leading verb is present-perfect, the present subjunctive sometimes follows: as, Ea ne (ut non) me celet, consuefeci filium—Ter. I have accustomed. If the preceding verb be present or future, the present of the subfunctive must be used; as, Moneo ut caveas, I advise you to take care. Legam ut discam, I will read that I may learn. Confido fore ut utamur, I trust we shall use. But these rules are sometimes infringed; as, Dumnorigi, ut idem conaretur, persuadet—Cæs. Non puto te expectare quibus verbis eum commendarem—Cic. Yet on another occasion he says, Nihil jam opus est te expectare quibus verbis eum commendem. Subjunctively, Quo factum est, ut brevi tempore illustraretur —Nep. became famous.

Preterperfect tense.—Amaverim.

This tense denotes a contingent action which may be already past, or which will be past at some future time. The common signs are may, might, would, or should have.

Errârim fortasse—Plin. Perhaps I might be in an error. Injussu tuo, imperator, extra ordinem nunquam pugnaverim, non si certam victoriam videam—Liv. I never would fight.

The author of the article, Grammar, in the Encyclop. Brit. seems to deny this tense the power of expressing past contingency, which indeed he thinks cannot exist. In adducing this opinion, he appears to me to confound two things perfectly distinct, viz., objective, and subjective contingency. That there can be no objective contingency in a past action, is sufficiently obvious. What is past, is certain, and, therefore, cannot be contingent. A past action, however, may be considered as an object of subjective uncertainty, or contingency. Thus I may say, "Perhaps I may have written such words, but, if I have, I have no recollection of it."—Forsan ita scripserim. It is, doubtless, true that I must either have written, or not have written, and, therefore, the affirmative, or the negative, is objectively certain. But, subjectively, it is not so; it is to me as uncertain as any contingent future event. This distinction is familiar to every logician. See Watts's Logic, part 2, chap. 2. Crombie on Necessity, p. 127.

Quis hunc vere dixerit divitem? Who would truly call him rich? Videor sperare posse, si te viderim, et ea quæ premant, et ea quæ impendeant mihi, facile transiturum—Cic. If I can see you, or When I shall be able to see you. It is not commonly used to express past contingency; for, as Johnson observes, Videris, si affueris, would not be used for, You might have seen it, had you been there; but Vidisses si affuisses.

This tense is often used by writers when they declare their own opinion: as, De Menandro loquor, nec tamen excluserim alios—Quint. Nor do I (would I) exclude others.

In verbs in or, this tense is double, amatus sim vel fuerim,

as in the indicative mood.

It is sometimes used in concessions: as, Parta sit pecunia—Cic. Suppose the money were gotten. Or as an imperative, as will be hereafter mentioned.

Preterpluperfect tense.—Amavissem.

This tense is used to express a contingent event, to be completed in time past; which contingency is generally future as to some past time mentioned in the context. The usual signs are; had, might have, would have, could have, should have, or ought to have. Si jussisset, paruissem, If he had commanded, I would have obeyed. Mortem pugnans oppetisses, Thou shouldest have met death, fighting; or oughtest to have met. Boni vicissent, The good might have conquered. Quid tibi cum pelago? terrá contenta fuisses—Ov. You might have been content. Verum anceps fuerat pugnæ fortuna; fuisset—Virg. It might have been so; suppose that it had been so.

It must often be expressed, in English, like the imperfect subjunctive. Multa pollicens, si conservâsset—Nep. Promising many things, if he would preserve him. Responderunt se facturos esse, cum ille vento Aquilone Lemnum venisset—Nep. They answered, that they would do it, when he should come &c. Si se consulem fecissent, brevi tempore Jugurtham in potestatem P. R. redacturum, If they would make him consul, that he would soon reduce &c. Dixerunt se facturos esse quæcunque imperâsset, They said, they would do whatever he should command.

In such examples, when, at a certain past time referred to, a thing is represented as future, and yet to be completed before another thing which is also represented at that time as future, took place, this tense is used. The past time referred to is expressed by dixerunt, they said. When they said so, their doing what he should command, and also the

command itself, were future. But as the command must have been given before they could execute it, the verb *impero* is rendered pluperfect, and *facio* is put in the future of the infinitive.—They said that they would do it *then*, when he should have commanded it.

Subjunctively, (Quum Casar hac animadvertisset—Cas. had observed. Accusatus proditionis, quòd a pugná deces-

sisset—Nep. had come off.

Johnson observes that this tense is commutable with the imperfect: as, *Hem* prædiceres or prædixisses. At tu dictis,

Albane, maneres or mansisses 1.

In verbs in or, this tense has three forms: as, amatus essem, fuissem, or forem. Et felicissima matrum dicta foret Niobe, si non sibi visa esset—Ov. Might have been called, had she not seemed.

Future tense. - Amavero.

This tense is improperly named the future subjunctive; for it is a tense of the indicative, and seems to have the same relation to the future of the indicative, as the perfect definite has to the present; on which account it has been named,

with more propriety, the perfect future.

When we mean to express that an action will be finished before another action, which is also future, take place, we use this tense. The usual sign is shall have, but it is often omitted. Quum eò stultitiæ pervenero, de me actum erit, When I arrive (shall arrive, have arrived, shall have arrived) at that pitch of folly, I shall be undone. Cum cænavero, proficiscar, When I sup (have supped, shall have supped) I will go.

From these examples, it may be seen that this tense is not very different from the perfect subjunctive; and that, in many instances, it is immaterial to the signification, whether the action be expressed as absolutely future perfect or con-

tingently future perfect.

Mr. R. Johnson, in opposition to Vossius, contends that we may use this tense, in speaking of a thing future, without regard to its being finished before another thing also future, and produces this among other examples: Si te aquo animo ferre accipiet, negligentem feceris—Ter. If he shall hear that you take this with indifference, you will render him careless.

Now Johnson contends, that, according to the doctrine of Vossius, as his hearing must have taken place before he became careless, it should have been expressed, Si te æquo

In a few sentences the one tense may be found used instead of the other; but their number is too small to warrant this general observation.

animo ferre acceperit, negligentem facies. But as it is not expressed in this manner, he differs from Vossius, and is of opinion, that the future subjunctive may be used like the future indicative. But Ruddiman, agreeing with Vossius, judiciously observes, that we may faintly hint at the finishing of an action yet future, without considering the finishing of an action on which it depends. He also observes, that the occasionally promiscuous use of tenses is not sufficient to make them formally the same.

In verbs in or, this tense has two forms: as, amatus ero or fuero. The first form strictly denotes the completion of a future action indefinitely. The second implies that it shall be finished before another action, likewise future, shall take place. There is no future subjunctive; but its import is expressed by the future participle, and the verb sum; thus amaturus sim, sis, sit, &c.; as Haud dubito, quin facturus sit, I doubt not but he will do it, quin being joined to the

subjunctive.

IMPERATIVE MOOD.

1. This mood is used, when we address ourselves to a person or thing, to command, exhort, entreat, and sometimes to permit; and consequently the second person is the only part that is really imperative. *Ama*, love thou. *Amatote*, love ye. *Ne* nega—Ter. Deny not.

2. The second person of the present subjunctive is used as an imperative, especially in forbidding, after *ne*, *nemo*, *nullus*. *Ne me* attingas, *sceleste*—Ter. Do not touch me.

3. The second person of the perfect subjunctive, or perfect future, is used as an imperative. Tu videris de his—Liv. Look upon these. Luant peccata, nec illos juveris auxilio—Æn. Nor assist them.

4. The third person of the imperative is permissive, and generally is expressed by *let*. Faciat, *quod lubet*; sumat, consumat, perdat; *decretum est pati*—Ter. Let him do—

let him take, &c.

5. The third person of the perfect, and sometimes of the pluperfect, subjunctive is thus used: Sed primum positum sit, nosmet ipsos commendatos esse nobis—Cic. Let it be laid down. Verum anceps fuerat pugnæ fortuna; fuisset—Virg. Be it so—let it have been so—it might have been, &c.

6. The first person plural, which belongs to the present subjunctive, is used only in encouraging or resolving. Moriamur, et in media arma ruamus—Æn, Let us die—and

let us rush.

Vossius and Priscian have contended, that the imperative,

in the passive voice, has a preterperfect tense. Johnson denies it, and observes that the very nature of the impera-

tive has a strong repugnance to all past time.

If the command be regarded, and not the execution of it, the imperative may be considered as implying present time. But if respect be had to the execution, the imperative implies future time. The examples which Vossius produces to prove that it has a preterperfect in the passive voice are these: Primum positum sit, nosmet ipsos commendatos esse nobis—Cic. Heec dieta sint patribus—Liv.; and a few others.

This controversy, like many others respecting the tenses, arises from inattention to the proper distinction between preterite and perfect, the former as referring to time only, and the latter to action. That there can be no preterite of the imperative,—in other words, that a past action, in its nature irrevocable, cannot form the subject of a present command, -is sufficiently evident. But, though every command, considered simply as a command, and expressed imperatively in the words of the speaker, must be present, yet, this command may be either definite or indefinite in respect to the completion of the action. It may either order an action to be done, without referring to the time of its perfection, or it may command its being perfected in a given time. In the latter case, as the action is ordered to be perfected, there can be no impropriety in calling that form of the verb, which expresses it, the imperative perfect. Thus, if I say, Liber legitor, I give a general command, without referring to the perfection of the action. If I say, Liber sit lectus (forsan) intra horam, I imply that the reading is to be finished in the space of an hour i. The latter may be called the imperative perfect. The Greeks, in their imperatives, admit certain tenses of the past, such as those of the perfect and two agrists. But when they are so used, they either lose their temporary nature, or imply such a quickness of execution, that the deed should be, as it were, done, the very moment it is commanded. The same difference seems to be between our English imperatives, go and begone; do and have done. The first allow time for going and doing; the others call for the completion of the act, at once.

So in Greek, γραφε, (present imperative,) write thou;

It should, however, be observed, that the command implied in such forms really arises from an ellipsis of some present of the imperative, such as da or puta; and that it is only the perfect participle which refers to the completion or perfection of the action. The former expresses a command in present time, the latter the perfection of an action, and, by inference, in future time.

γραψον, (perfect indefinite or a rist of imperative,) get your writing finished as soon as possible; γεγραφε, (perfect im-

perative,) have your writing finished.

Thus it appears that the present imperative regards the commencement, or progression of an action; the other imperatives seem particularly to have an eye to its completion.

INFINITIVE MOOD.

1. If the action of the infinitive is present or progressive, at the time of the action of the preceding verb on which the infinitive depends, whether it be past, present or future, the infinitive is in the present tense. Visne mihi auscultare? Will you listen to me? Audivit me stare, He heard that I was standing. Vidi enim nostros inimicos cupere bellum—Cic. Were wishing.

2. As in the present indicative, poets and historians sometimes relate past events in the present infinitive. Fertur Prometheus addere principi Limo coactus particulam undique

descetam—Hor. to add, meaning to have added.

3. When the action of the infinitive is meant to be past at the time denoted by the leading verb, the infinitive is put in the past time, whatever tense the other may be in. Victorem victae succubuisse queror—Hor. Had submitted.

When in English two verbs come together, past time is in certain instances expressed in the preterite of the depending verb: as, I ought to have read. But the reverse takes place in Latin: as, Debui legere. When an action is represented as present at a certain time past, the past time is expressed in both languages, in the leading verb alone, the other being put in the present. Hence, in English it is proper to avoid, when the principal verb has a reference to aubsequent action, such double perfects as, I thought to have won, instead of I thought to win. The following examples, in which possum, volo, nolo, nalo, and debeo are the leading verbs in Latin, seem, in their English, to infringe this rule. Meliùs fieri non potuit—Ter. It could not have been done better, i. s. it was impossible to be done better. Volui dicere—Plaut. I would have said, i. e. I wished to say. Sumere noluit arma—Ov. He would not have taken arms, i. c. he was unwilling to take arms. Maluit regis opes augere-Nep. He would rather have increased the king's power, i. e. he was more inclined to increase. Debuisti mihi ignoscere-Cic. You ought to have pardoned me, i, e. it was your duty to pardon me. Dividi non oportuit—Cic. It ought not to have been divided, i. e. it behoved it not to be divided. But it is to be observed that ought, although the preterite of owe, does not now, as formerly, denote past, but present obligation; and that could, would and might, as has been already mentioned, do not always mark past time exclusively, but very often present time also. In Latin, although the present of the infinitive be used after memini, it must be expressed by the perfect, in English: as, Ego illam vidi virginem : formâ bonâ memini videre-Ter. I remember that I saw her. The perfect is also used: as, Tibi me permisisse memini-Cic. In these it seems immaterial whether the circumstances are laid up in the mind, while they are passing, or after they are past; whether I remember the seeing, or permitting of a person, or the having seen, or permitted him.

Cæsar repperit a Sucvis, auxilia missa esse—Cæs. Had been sent.

4. Sometimes the present and perfect may be interchanged. Sed abunde erit ex iis due exempla retulisse—Val. Max., or

referre, to relate.

5. When the action of the infinitive may be future to that of the leading verb, it is put in the future, whatever the time of the leading verb may be: Quem quidem confido omnibus istis laudibus excellentem fore—Cic. Would be. Postquam audievat non datum iri filio uxorem suo—Ter. That a wife

would not be given to his son.

Note 1. We sometimes find the perfect participle passive, and the future participle active, when employed with esse to form the infinitive, used as if indeclinable, and joined to nouns, without regard to their gender or number; thus, Credo ego inimicos meos hoc dicturum (esse)—C. Gracch. Hane sibi rem præsidio sperant futurum (esse)—Cic. Justam rem et facilem esse oratum a vobis volo—Plaut. Ut cohortes ad me missum facias—Cic. But such constructions, arising probably from oversight, or from considering such a periphrasis as oratum esse indeclinable, are not to be imitated.

Note 2. That the future of the infinitive passive is composed of the verb of motion *iri*, and the supine in *um*; and the sentence may be thus supplied: Postquam audierat id non *iri* ab illis datum uxorem suo filio, That it was not going by them (impersonally; that is, that they were not going)

to give a wife to his son.

6. In many instances the present, as in English, may be used when the signification is future; but in some, it appears that the future would be preferable. Omnia ci peragere promiserunt—Cic. They promised to perform, that they would perform. Nisi dictis staretur, non se remittere exercitum—Flor. That he would not send back, remissurum esse. Cras mihi argentum dare dixit—Ter. Would give, daturum.

² The use and signification of the infinitive preceded by an accusative, and

depending upon another verb, may be seen in the following examples:

Divit Divit Divit Divert Diver

The infinitive seems to be sometimes used for the present subjunctive: as, Nec Babylonies tentaris numeros, at melius, quiequid crit, pati—Hor. that, or by that, by which, the better to suffer, i. e. at, vel quò, nedius patiaris, vel pati possis quiequid crit. This is a Greek idiom. I am not ignorant that some have said, that, here, at is used for quonium, and that the meaning is, as it is better to suffer, but the former interpretation I deem preferable.

7. Fore, the infinitive of sum, is joined to all participles in us. Commissum cum equitatu prælio fore videbat—Cæs. Deinde addis, te ad me fore venturum—Cic. Eò quoque mittendos fore legatos—Liv.

In several instances it seems to approach to the significa-

tion of esse.

Note. That the use of the infinitive as a noun will be found in Syntax: and its use after the word *that*, under Conjunctions.

Gerunds and supines have been defined; and their use and signification will be found explained in Syntax.

PARTICIPLES.

Present Part. Act. Amans, loving. Perf. Pass. Amatus, loved.

Some have supposed that the time of both these participles is present; some have supposed that they have no time, and some have supposed that they are of all times.—The first denotes an action incomplete, and progressive, and its time may, therefore, be considered as present; the second denotes the state of suffering finished, and, therefore, the time in which it has been perfected may be considered as past. For it does not appear that doctus is, if I may so express it, the precise counter-part passive of docens; because, although docens signifies a person at this moment teaching another, doctus, it is known, does not denote the person who

Dioit)	(He says that I read, or, have or had read.
Dicebat	He was saying that I read, or, have or had read.
Dixit > me	He said that I have, or, had read.
Dixerat legisse,	He had said that I had read.
Dicet j	He will say that I have, or, had read.
Dicit	He says that I will read.
Dicebat nis	He was saying that I would read.
Dixit } lecturum	
Dixerat esse,	He had said that I would read.
Dicet]	He will say that I am about to read.
Dicit)	[He says that I would have read.
Dicebat me	He was saying that I would have read.
Dixit } lecturum	He said that I would have read.
Dixerat fuisse,	He had said that I would have read.
Dicet)	He will say that I would have read.

¹ Mr. R. Johnson says that the time is the same in Vidi eum superantem as in vidi eum superatum. The time of seeing the two men, expressed by vidi, is certainly the same; but their situations, in regard to the action which the one is doing, and in regard to the action which the other has completely suffered, are widely different. And I cannot conceive, but that such expressions as, Vidi cum superantem, superare, and superari, denote an action present and progressive at the time expressed by vidi; and that Vidi eum superatum denotes an action past and completed in a time previous to that which is expressed by vidi.

is at this moment in the act of being taught by the former; but a man on whom, in a time previous to the present, the act has been perfected, and whose suffering is completed, vir doctus, a man already taught; and, consequently, the

passive voice has no present participle.

But there are not wanting instances, in which, from the nature of the verb, whose action seems susceptible of continuation, it appears that the action of the perfect participle is continued into present time; and in these the perfect participle has the force of a present participle passive: or, in some instances, is to be considered as an adjective, denoting the existence of some quality, the result of past action, but Thus: Notus evolat Terribilem piceá tecdivested of time. tus caligine vultum—Ov. Not merely having been veiled, (and possibly having ceased to be veiled,) but veiling his countenance, or having it, at that moment, veiled. Sternuntur segetes, et deplorata coloni Vota jacent-Ov. merely having been lamented, or despaired of, but at that moment despaired of, desperate, or hopeless. Perfection does not in all cases necessarily imply cessation.

It is not inconsistent with the foregoing explanation, to say that these participles are joined to verbs in all times, and this too without losing their distinctive time and signification. For *amans* denotes an action which is present at the time represented by the leading verb of the sentence, whe-

ther that verb be past, present, or future.

In the same manner, amatus represents an action which is past, in regard to the time expressed in the context, whether past, present, or future. When divested of time, these participles are called participials, and may govern a genitive: as, Patiens frigus, one bearing cold. Patiens frigoris, one patient of, or able to bear, cold.

In the latter, patiens is a participial, and denotes a quality belonging to some person, and not a transient act. Doctus Latinam linguam, one taught the Latin language. Doctus lingua Latina, one skilled in the Latin language. As participials, they admit comparison: as, Servantissimus æqui

—Virg. A very strict observer of equity.

Future Participle Active, Amaturus, about to love.

This participle not only implies future time, but also sometimes denotes intention, or inclination: as, *Lecturus sum*, I am about to read, or I intend to read.

Joined to cro, it is translated as if it constituted another form of the future: as, Mergite me fluctus, quan rediturus

ero—Mart. I shall be returning. Nihil ego ero illi daturus—Plaut. I shall give. Tu procul absenti cura futurus

eris-Ov. Quo die ad Sicam venturus ero-Cic.

Joined to esse or fuisse, it forms the future of the infinitive active, agreeing, like an adjective, with its substantive; amaturum esse, to be about to love; amaturum fuisse, to have been about to love.

Future Participle Passive, Amandus, to be loved.

This participle, coming even from verbs in or, signifying actively, has always a passive signification. In conjunction with the verb sum, it denotes that a thing must be done, or ought to be done; and, hence, by inference it likewise implies futurity. Dixi literas scriptum iri ab eo, I said that a letter would be written by him. Dixi literas scribendas esse, I said that a letter should, or ought to, be written.

The former is the future of the infinitive, and implies bare futurity; in the latter sentence, duty or necessity is implied. Delenda est Carthago—Cato. Must be, ought to be, is to be, destroyed. Legatos mittendos censuit senatus—Liv.

Should be sent.

In the following examples, it is said to denote bare futurity; Ut terram invenias, quis eam tibi tradet habendam—Ov. Dido Æn. To be possessed. Facta fugis; facienda petis—Ov. Dido Æn. Things that will hereafter be done.

It is also used as a gerundive adjective: as, Cur adeo delectaris criminibus inferendis? Why are you so pleased with bringing accusations? Aliter—inferendo crimina. His enim legendis, redeo in memoriam mortuorum—Cic. By reading these; hæc legendo. Ad accusandos homines duci præmio. To accuse men, or, to the accusing of men. Quæ ante conditam, condendamve urbem traduntur—Liv. Before the city was built or building:—In this example, it has somewhat of the force of a present participle passive, in regard to the progressive action of its building; and of the future participle, in reference to the intention of that action.

All participles are found with all tenses of sum.

Dr. Crombie (Gymnasium, 2nd ed. vol. ii. p. 363) likewise contends, and, it appears to me, successfully, that this word is a present participle of the passive voice; and that it does not, by its own power, ever express futurity, or

^{*} There are many instances in which the participle in dus seems to have the import of the present: thus, qua ubi vidit audivitque senex, velut si jam agendis qua audivitateresset—Liv. i. e. the things while they were doing. Thus also, volvenda dies en attulit ultrò—Virg. Perizonius is of opinion that it was originally a participle of the present tense passive, and lays some stress on its being uniformly derived from the present participle active, following even its irregularity in the only one which is irregular: thus, iens, euntis, eundus.

OF CONJUGATION AND FORMATION.

Conjugation is the regular distribution of the inflexions of verbs, according to their different voices, moods, tenses, numbers, and persons, so as to distinguish them from one another.

There are four conjugations of verbs, distinguished by the

vowel preceding re of the infinitive mood.

The first conjugation makes are long: as, Amare. The second conjugation makes ere long: as, Monere. The third conjugation makes ere short: as, Regere. The fourth conjugation makes ere long: as, Audire.

There are four principal parts of a verb, whence all its other parts are formed, viz. o of the present, i of the preterite, um of the supine, and re of the infinitive: as, Amo, amavi, amatum, amare; and these are sometimes called its

conjugation.

It has been customary to form, from the infinitive, the present participle, the future participle in *dus*, and the gerunds; a formation which cannot be considered as correct, in regard to verbs in *io* of the third conjugation, since those verbs have not in their infinitive the *i* which belongs to those parts; and even in the fourth conjugation, they are formed with greater propriety from the present. For similar reasons, the method which excludes the infinitive is equally objectionable.

The following formation is not liable to such objections, and seems preferable to the other two methods, for reasons

which will be found in the annexed explanation.

the obligation either of necessity or duty. In such phrases as tempus petendae pacis, neither futurity nor obligation is expressed, the expression being equivalent to tempus petendi pacem, tempus quo pax petatur, tempus petere pacem. In volvenda dies en attulit ultro-Virg., volvenda is clearly a participle of the present tense passive, equivalent to sese volvens, or dum volvitur, and expressing neither futurity nor obligation. In such expressions as permisit urbem diripiendam, he contends that it is purpose, not futurity, that is directly expressed. He does not, however, deny that the participle in dus, when joined to the verb sum, uniformly denotes moral or physical obligation; but he contends, that, in such phraseologies, there is no word expressive of futurity or obligation, although the combination of the two words has by usage acquired this signification, in the same manner as in English, such expressions as "Is a man to be punished for what he could not prevent?" in which there is no word expressive of duty, obligation, or futurity, are reckoned equivalent to "Ought a man to be punished?" He agrees with Perizonius in considering fore to be understood in Movebatur igitur misericordia civium, quos interficiendos videbat—Cæs. Because he saw that many of his countrymen must fall, or would necessarily be slain, if he encountered the enemy in another battle.

The Formation of the Tenses of Verbs, from the Present, the Perfect, the Supine, and the Infinitive.

I. From -o are formed,

Names of the Tenses.

-bam, Imperf. Indic.
-bo, { Fut. Indic. of the 1st and 2d Conjugation. { Pres. Subj. of the 2d; Pres.

-am, Pres. Subj. of the 2d; Pres. Subj. and Fut. Indic. of 3d and 4th.

-em, Pres. Subj. of the 1st.
-ns, The Present participle.

-dus, The Fut. Participle, Passive.

-dum, -di, -do,

II. From -i are formed,

-ram, The Plup. Indic. -rim, The Perf. Subj. -ro, The Fut. Subj. -ssem, The Plup. Subj. -sse, The Perf. Infinit,

III. From -um are formed,

-u, The second Supine.
-us, The Perf. Participle, Passive.
-rus, The Future Participle.

IV. From the infinitive, whether ending in -re, -le, or -se, are formed the imperative, by cutting off the final syllable; and the imperfect of the subjunctive, by adding m to it.

Observations on the Formation of Regular and Irregular Verbs.

(1.) The first formation includes all verbs in -o and those in -io of the third conjugation. These last have the i also before -unt of the present indicative, and -unto of the imperative. The principal irregularity of the irregular verbs, besides their deficiency, consists in their deviating from the usual mode of formation, chiefly in those parts that are formed from the present. Thus:

			Imperf. Indic.	Fut.	Pres. Subj.
(Sum,	has,	eram,	ero,	sim.
3	Possum,		poteram,	potero,	possim.
(Prosum,		proderam,	prodero,	prosim.
	Volo,				velim.
₹	Nolo,				nolim.
-	Malo,				malim.
	Eo,		ibam,	ibo,	eam.

Pres. participle, *iens*; gerunds, *cundum*, -i, -o. *Ens* from *sum* is obsolete. Its compound, *potens*, is generally consi-

dered as an adjective; also, absens and præsens.

(2, 3.) The second and third formations are followed by all verbs having a perfect, or supine. Fio, though active in its termination, being a passive verb, has all the compound tenses of the passive voice. Sum, though without a supine, has the future participle, futurus, as if from fuitum or futum of the obsolete fuo, whence it has also fui its perfect, fore

of the infinitive, forem, &c.

(4.) The fourth formation includes regular and irregular verbs: thus, infinit. imperat. and imperf. subj. Regere, rege, regerem; Capere, cape, caperem; Ferre, fer, ferrem; Ire, i, irem; Posse-, Velle-, Malle-, Nolle-, m, the three first having no imperative; Esse, es, essem; Prodesse, prodes, prodessem. Except Dic, duc, fac, fi, and noli. Ficri makes fierem; it was originally firi, and firem, regularly; and hence fi of the imperative.

A Paradigm of the Tenses of the Active Voice of the Four Conjugations, according to the

preceding Formation.

Names of Tenses.	Pres. Indic. I.	Imp. Indic. II.	Fut. Indic. III.	Pres. Subj. IV.	Pres. Part	Fut. Part. Pass.	_	Gerunds.	
4th.	Audĭõ	audĭēbam	audĭam	audĭam	audiens	audĭēndŭs	audĭēndum	audřendī	audiendo
34.	Rego	regebam	regam	regam	regens	regendus	regendum	regendī	regendõ
.p2	Monĕŏ	monēbam	monebo	monĕam	monēns	monendus	monendum	monēndī	monēndo
1st conj.	Amŏ	amābam	amābo	amem	amāns	amāndŭs	amāndum	amāndī	amando, &c.

Amāvī	Monüi	Rexi	Audivi	Perf. Ind. V.
amāvěram	monŭĕram	rexĕram	audīvēram	Plup. Ind. VI.
amāvěrim	monŭĕrim	rexĕrim	audīvērim	Perf. Subj. VII.
amāvěrõ	monŭĕro	rexero	audīvero	Fut. Subj. VIII.
amāvīssem	monŭīssem	rexissem	audīvīssem	Plup. Subj. IX.
amāvīssĕ	monŭīssĕ	rexīssĕ	audīvīssč	Perf. Infin.
Amātum	Monitum	Rectum	Auditum	1st Supine.
amātū	monĭtū	rectū	audītū	2d Supine.
amātŭs	monitüs	rectŭs	audītŭs	Perf Part Pass.
amātūrŭs	monitūrŭs	rectūrŭs	audītūrŭs	Fut. Part.
Amārĕ	Monērĕ	Regĕrĕ	Audīrĕ	Pres. Infin.
amā	monē	regĕ	audī	Imperative, X.
amārem	monerem	regĕrem	audirem	Imp. Subj. XI.

A Table of the Persons in each Tense, the Ordinal Numbers referring to the Tenses, as they stand according to their Formation, and the Cardinal Numbers denoting the Conjugation.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

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		ām	ēm	ĭm	īm	bār	Ĭm	ĕrā	bĭĭ	ēm
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	ēnt ānt rēnt črīnt īssēnt črīnt	ānto, (ēnt) ēmo, (ĕānt) ūnto, (ānt) ĭūnto, (ānt)
.000	ētis ātis rētis črītis īssētis črītis	até, atôtě ēté, etôtě řté, řtôtě řté, řtôtě řtě, řtôtě
ONCINE MO	ēmús āmús rēmús ĕrímús īssēmús ĕrīmús	MPERATIVE MOOI (ēmūs) (imūs) (amūs) (iāmūs)
d Oc	čt at rčt čřít šřít ëršť	IM: āto, (ĕt) ēto, (ĕāt) ĭtō, (ät) ītō, (ïāt)
	es nes res rris erris isses erris	a, atč e, etč k, itč
	em am rem ĕrim īssem ĕrõ	
	Pres. Imp. Perf. Plup. Flut.	
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1 ris, rinus and ritis are by some reckoned common, both in the perfect and future. Indeed such is the nature of the two tenses, that, in many instances, they can hardly be distinguished.

A Paradigm of the Tenses of the Passive Voice of the Four Conjugations.

Names of Tenses.	Pres. Ind. I.	Imp. —— II.	Fut III.	Pres. Subj. IV.	Imp. — V.	Pres. Imper. VI.	Duce Inf	LIES, IIII.
4th.	Audĭŏr	audřebăr	audĭär	audĭăr	audīrēr	audīrĕ	audīrī	-Yer
3d.	Regör	regebăr	regar	regar	regĕrĕr	regere	regī	_jer
2d.	Monĕŏr	monebăr	monebòr	monĕăr	monerer	monērĕ	monērī	Iel .
1st conj.	Amŏr	amābār	amābör	amĕr	amārčr	amārĕ	amārī	ĭĕr

A Table of the Persons in each Tense.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

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MOOD.	Plural	2.	āmini ēmini iminī	īminī bāminī biminī	ēminī Moob.	ēminī āminī rēminī	MOOD. amini, aminor emini, eminor imini, iminor imini, iminor
INDICATIVE MOUD				imŭr bāmŭr bĭmŭr	ēmŭr subjunctive	ēműr ēmíni āműr āmíni rēműr rēmíni	IMPERATIVE eműr eaműr aműr iaműr
	ar.	တိ	atŭr ētŭr ĭtŭr	ītŭr bātŭr bĭtŭr	ētŭr	ētŭr ātŭr rētŭr	atór, etűr etőr, éatűr ítőr, átűr itőr, iatűr
	Singular	ci	āris, ārĕ ēris, ērĕ ĕris, ērĕ	īris, īrĕ bāris, bārĕ bĕris, bĕrĕ	ēris, ērĕ	ēris, ērē āris, ārē rēris, rērē	årë, atör ērë, ētör ĕrë, îtör îrë, ītör
		ř	Pres. ŏr	II. Imp. băr II. Fut. bŏr	ăr	Pres. ĕr . Imp. rĕr	
			 	H	H 2	IV.	VI.

OBSERVATIONS ON THE FOUR CONJUGATIONS.

(1) The future of the infinitive, active, is composed of the accusative of the future participle in rus, and esse vel fuisse; the former of which has been termed by some the

future imperfect; the latter, the future perfect.

(2) In looking over the scheme of the conjugations, it may be observed, that there is very little difference among them, except in their characteristics. The future indicative of the two first ends, in the active, in bo; in the passive, in bor: of the two last, in the active, in am; and in the passive, in ar. The present subjunctive of the first ends, in the active, in em; in the passive, in er: that of the three last, in the active, in am; and in the passive, in ar.

The following are the general terminations of the Indi-

cative and the Subjunctive, in the

	A	ACTIVE.				
Sir	ıg.		Plur.			
2	3	1	2	3		
S_{9}	t;	mus,	tis,	nt.		

The 2nd person singular perfect indicative is an exception, being isti.

PASSIVE.

Sing.

Plur.

2 3 1 2 3

ris, re, tur; mur, mini, ntur.

(3) In the imperative mood, both active and passive, the second form of the third persons singular and plural, and the first person plural, are evidently the same persons of the present subjunctive of their respective voices. The termination -minor, of the second person plural, passive, is but little used.

(4) In the first conjugation the verb do alone has its in-

crease short.

Verbs of the first conjugation; of the second and third, having evi for the perfect; and of the third and fourth, having ivi, suffer a contraction, by syncope, of v, or of v and the following vowel, in certain persons of the perfect of the indicative, and in parts formed from it: also verbs in io of the third conjugation, and verbs of the fourth, in the imperfect of the indicative. The quantities of which contractions are as follows;

First Conjugation.

Ind. Perf. āstī, āstīs, arunt.

Plup. āram, &c.

Subj. Perf. ārim, &c. Plup. āssem, &c.

Fut. ara, &c.

Inf. Perf. asse.

The second and third conjugations, having evi, are contracted and marked the same as the first, the e being long like the a.

The third and fourth in ivi.

Ind. Imperf. ibam, &c. Passive, ibar, &c.

Perf. ĭī, ĭīstī īstī, ĭĭt ît; ĭīstis īstīs, ĭērānt ĭēre.

Plup. iĕram, &c.

Perf. ĭĕrim, &c.

Plup. ĭissem issem, &c.

Fut. ĭĕrõ, &c.

Inf. Perf. iisse isse.

Subj.

Observe, that in those verbs in io, which have an i before a, e, o, u, the i is short.

PASSIVE VOICE.

(5) The simple tenses of the passive voice are formed from the corresponding tenses of the active, in the following manner. The first persons singular of the passive, from the first persons singular of the active, by adding r; or, if the active end in m, by changing m into r: the first persons plural, by changing s into r. The second persons singular, by inserting ri between the two concluding letters of the same persons in the active; but in the present of the indicative of the third conjugation, by inserting ri before the final is; and the second persons plural are formed by changing -tis into -mini. The third persons singular and plural, passive, are always the same as those of the active voice, but with the addition of ur.

IMPERATIVE MOOD.

The first form of the second person singular is formed by

According to Priscian, it should be added, that avit is contracted into at. In omnibus, he says, quæ penultimam habent circumflexam, si patiantur syncopam, cundem servamus accentum in ultima; ut fumávit: fumát; cupivit, cupit. Page 629.

the addition of re to the same person active (and is the same as the present of the infinitive active, and as the second person singular of the second form of the present of the indicative passive): the second persons plural are formed by changing -te and -tote into -mini (which is the same as the second person plural of the present of the indicative passive) and -minor: and the other parts are formed by adding r to o of the active.

INFINITIVE MOOD.

The present of the infinitive passive is formed, in the first, second and fourth conjugation, by changing the final e of the infinitive active into i; and, in the third, by changing ere into i, or by taking away s from the second person singular of the present of the indicative active. Deponent verbs form their infinitive in the same manner, an infinitive active being supposed, which is the same as the first form of the second person singular of their own imperative; or, by changing, for the third conjugation, or or ior into i, and, for the first, second, and fourth, re of the second person singular of the present of their indicative into ri.

The Compound Tenses are thus composed.

Indicative mood.

Perf.	The perfect participle prefixed	to sum vel fui.
Plup.	-	to eram vel fueram.

Subjunctive mood.

Perf.	The perfect participle prefixed to sim vel fuerim.
Plup.	to essem vel fuissem.
Fut.	

Infinitive mood.

The accusative of the perfect participle with esse or fuisse, constitutes the perfect and pluperfect; the first supine and iri, the future of the infinitive. This last, some have termed the future imperfect; and the accusative of the participle in dus with fuisse, the future perfect.

CONJUGATION OF VERBS.

GENERAL RULES.

I. If the verb has the letter a in the present, it has a likewise in the supine and infinitive, although it may change it

in the preterite: as, facio, feci, factum, facere.

II. Whatever verbs are deficient in perfects, are without supines also. *Cieo*, (civi being borrowed from cio,) citum; and tundo, (tutudi being said to be borrowed from the obsolete tudo, and to be but little used, unless in composition,) are perhaps the only exceptions.

III. The present of the infinitive is formed from the pre-

sent indicative, by changing, in the

First Conjugation, o into āre. Second Conjugation, ĕo into ēre. Third Conjugation, o, and ĭo into ĕre. Fourth Conjugation, ĭo into ĭre.

[Special rules for the formation of the perfects and supines will be found under the different conjugations; and the rules for the formation of compounded verbs will be hereafter mentioned.]

THE FIRST CONJUGATION.

The first conjugation makes avi in the perfect, and alum in the supine: as, amo, amavi, amatum, to love!

EXCEPTIONS.

The following six having ui, itum;

Crepo⁹, I make a noise; sono, I sound (sonaturus, in Horace); cubo⁸, I lie down; tono, I thunder (intonatus, in Horace); domo, I tame; veto, I forbid.

- The present of the indicative of this conjugation generally ends in o impure, but the following verbs in eo and io belong to it: beo, screo, creo, meo, calceo, illaqueo, nauseo, enucleo, delineo; amplio, basio, brevio, concilio, crucio, furio, glacio, hio, lanio, luxurio, nuncio, pio, propitio, radio, repudio, satio, saucio, socio, somnio, spolio, suavio or suavior, vario, vitio.
 - · Discrepo has rather discrepavi.
- Thus, ac-re-ex-cubo, &c. For those that assume the letter m, see Cumbo, in the third conjugation. Cubásse and incubavere are found.

Do', dědi, dătum, to give.

Juvo, juvi, jutuma, to help.

Frico, fricui, frictum, to rub. (In-per-re-con-fricatus, are found.)

Lavo, lavi, lavatum, to wash. (Lavavit, Plaut.)

lotum,

Mico³, micui, —, to shine. Plico⁴, *plicui, *plicitum, to fold.

*plicavi, *plicatum,

Poto, potavi, potum, to drink.

Seco, secui, sectum, to cut. Sto⁵, stěti, stătum, to stand.

Labo, I totter; nexo, I bind; plico, I fold, have neither perfect, nor supine.

THE SECOND CONJUGATION.

The second conjugation makes $\check{u}i^6$, $\check{t}tum^7$: as, habeo, habui, habitum⁵, to have.

- Thus, venundo, circumdo, pessundo, satisdo. See Do, third conjugation.
 - Hence jutus, and adjutus; the latter being more common.
- * Emico has emicui, and emicatum. Dimico, dimicavi (seldom dimicui), dimicatum. The simple verb neco is regular, having necavi (sometimes necui), necatum. Its compounds eneco and interneco have enecavi and enecui, enecatum and enectum; internecavi, -atum and -ectum.
- * Du-multi- re- sup- plico, -avi, -atum.

 Ap- im- com- ex- plico, -avi, -atum. Complicavi, {
 -ui, -itum. Complicui, {
 Explico, I explain, has -avi, -atum; I unfold, -ui, -itum.
- * The words thus marked (*) are obsolete, and are introduced only for the sake of their compounds.
- Its compounds have -stiti, -stitum, and more frequently -statum. The participle in rus is commonly formed from the latter. Circum-inter-super-steti, are found.
- ⁶ These have no perfect, and, therefore, no supine: aveo, ceveo, denseo, flaveo, glabreo, lacteo, liveo, mæreo, muceo, renideo, polleo, scateo.
- 7 These have no supine;—neuter verbs having ui; timeo and sileo (which are neuter and active, and have a passive voice); neuters in veo. Except calco, carco, coalco, dolco, jacco, latco, licco,

EXCEPTIONS.

Algeo, alsi⁹, ——, to be cold.
Ardeo, arsi, arsum, to burn.
Augeo, auxi, auctum, to increase.
Calveo, calvi, ——, to grow bald.
Caveo, cavi, cautum, to beware of.
Censeo, censui, censum, to judge.
Cieo, cīvi¹o, cĭtum, to stir up.
Conniveo, connivi, ——, to wink.
connixi,

Doceo, docui, doctum, to teach.
Deleo, delēvi, delētum, to blot out.
Faveo, favi, fautum, to favour.
Ferveo, ferbui, ———, to boil.
Fleo, flevi, fletum, to weep.
Foveo, fovi, fotum, to cherish.
Frigeo, frixi, ———, to be cold.
Fulgeo, fulsi, ———, to shine.
Hæreo, hæsi, hæsum, to stick.
Indulgeo, indulsi, indultum, to indulge.
rarò indulsum,

Jubeo, jussi, jussum, to order.
Luceo, luxi, ———, to shine.
Lugeo, luxi¹¹, ———, to mourn.
Maneo, mansi, mansum, to remain.
Misceo, miscui, mistum, to mix.
mixtum,

Mordeo, momordi, morsum, to bite. Moveo, movi, motum, to move. Mulceo, mulsi, mulsum, to stroke.

merco, noceo, oleo, pareo, placeo, taceo, valeo, and their compounds, which are oftener found in the participle in rus, than in the supine. Arceo has no supine in use, but, co-ex-erceo, -itum. Taceo and lateo have a supine; but their compounds have none. Taceo, sometimes active, and sometimes neuter; it has a passive voice.

- ⁸ Præbeo is put for præhabeo or prohibeo. Præbit -um, -us, -urus, and præbeor are found, but are seldom used.
 - 9 Alsus, as if from alsum, is found in Cicero.
- ¹⁰ Civi belongs to cio of the fourth conjugation, which its compounds generally follow: as, accio, excio, &c.
- Luctum I can find in dictionaries only; whence comes the substantive luctus. Neither luctum nor the participles luctus and lucturus are in use.

Mulgeo, mulsi, mulsum, to milk.

Neo, nevi, netum, to spin.

Oleo', olui, *olitum, to smell, or grow.

* olevi, * oletum,

Paveo, pavi, —, to be afraid. Pendeo, pependi, pensum, to hang.

* Pleo, * plevi, * pletum, to fill.

Prandeo, prandi, pransum, to dine.

Rideo, risi, risum, to laugh.

Sedeo3, sedi, sessum, to sit.

Sorbeo³, sorbui, sorptum, to sup up.

Spondeo, spospondi, sponsum, to promise.

spopondi,

Strideo, stridi, ____, to make a noise.

Suadeo, suasi, suasum, to advise.

Teneo*, tenui, tentum, to hold.

Tergeo, tersi, tersum, to wipe.

Tondeo, totondi, tonsum, to clip. Torqueo, torsi, tortum, to twist.

torsum (seldom),

Torreo, torrui, tostum, to toast.
Turgeo, tursi⁵, ———, to swell.
Urgeo⁶, ursi, ———, to urge.
Video, vidi, visum, to see.

Voveo, vovi, votum, to vow. Vieo, viēvi, viētum, to bind.

¹ The compounds of oleo, that signify to smell, have -ui, -itum: as, ob-per-red-oleo, -ui, -itum. Those that deviate from the original signification of the simple verb have -evi, -etum: as, ex-in-obs-oleo, -ēvi, -ētum. But aboleo, -olēvi, -olītum. Adoleo, -olevi, adultum.

^{*} De- dis- per- præ-re- sub- sideo, seldom have a supine. De-dis- sideo, seldom the perfect.

^{*} Absorbeo is rarely found to have -sorpsi; ex-re-sorptum are not found.

Attineo and pertineo have no supine;—abstineo, seldom; although abstentus is found. Teneo and tendo seem to have the same origin; and they and their compounds are not easily distinguished in their supines, and the formation therefrom, unless when the supine tensum from tendo is used.

⁵ Tursi is uncommon. Priscian attributes obtursi to Lucilius.

O Urgeo has ursum in the dictionaries; but neither that, nor a perfect nor future participle, is found.

THE THIRD CONJUGATION.

The third conjugation 1 forms its perfects and supines variously, according to the termination of the present.

Bo makes bi, bitum: as, bibo, bibi, bibitum, to drink.

EXCEPTIONS.

*Cumbo³, cubui, cubitum, to lie down. Nubo, nupsi, nuptum, to marry. Scribo, scripsi, scriptum, to write.

Co makes xi, ctum: as, dico, dixi, dictum, to say.

EXCEPTIONS.

Ico, ici, ictum, to strike. Vinco, vici, victum, to conquer. Parco, peperci, parsum, to spare. (rarely, parsi,) parcitum⁴,

Sco makes vi, tum: as, nosco, novi, notum, to know.

EXCEPTIONS.

Disco, didĭci, —, to learn.

- The third conjugation ends in o impure; but the following verbs in io and ior belong to it: facio, jacio, capio, rapio, *lacio, *specio, fodio, fugio, cupio, sapio, pario, quatio; gradior, patior, orior, morior, and compounds, those of pario excepted, which belong to the fourth.
- Lambo and scabo have no supines. Officio, likewise. Glubi and glubitum, from glubo, are uncommon. Degluptus may be found.
- * Cumbo is the same as cubo of the first. The following admit the m: ac-con-de-dis-in-oc-pro-re-suc-superin-cumbo.
- If there be any perfect participle, it is parcitus. Parsurus is found in Suetonius, and Livy. Parcitum is uncommon. Comparsit or compersit, from comparco, or comperco, is used by Terence.
- Inceptive verbs in sco, want both perfects and supines, unless they borrow them from the verbs whence they are formed: as, ardesco borrows arsi, arsum, from ardeo. Ac-in-per-pro-suc-su-per-cresco have no supine; the other compounds have. Glisco, neither perfect nor supine.
- But ag-cog-nosco, -novi, -nitum; also recognosco. The other compounds, like nosco. The participle nosciturus, as if from noscitum, is found in Livy. Priscian makes mention of ignosciturus, but it is without sufficient authority.
 - 7 Disco had formerly discitum; and disciturus is found in Apuleius.

Pasco¹, pavi, pastum, to feed.
Posco², poposci, poscitum (rarely), to demand.
*Quinisco³, *quexi, ———, to nod.

Do makes di, sum: as, scando, scandi, scansum, to climb.

EXCEPTIONS.

The following nine, having si, sum, viz.

Claudo, I shut. Ludo, I play. Rodo, I gnaw. Divido, I divide. Plaudo, I applaud. Trudo⁵, I thrust. Lædo, I hurt. Rado⁵, I shave. Vado⁵, I go.

The compounds of do6, having didi, ditum, viz.

Abdo, I hide.
Addo, I add.
Condo, I hide, build.
Credo, I believe.
Dedo, I yield.

Dido, I give out.
Edo, I publish.
Reddo, I restore.
Subdo, I put under.
Credo, I believe.
Obdo, I oppose.
Trado, I deliver.
Perdo, I destroy. Vendo, I sell.

Cădo⁷, cecidi, cāsum, to fall. Cædo⁸, cecidi, cæsum, to kill. Cedo, cessi, cessum, to yield.

- 1 Thus also com- de- pasco. Epastus also is found. But comdis- pesco, -pescui, no supine.
 - * Exposcitum is found in Seneca, according to Vossius.
- ³ Quinisco has but one compound, conquinisco. Both are uncommon words, and seldom found in their perfects.
- * Strido and rudo have no supine. Nor sido; but its compounds borrow from sedeo: as, as-circum-con-de-in-ob-per-re-sub-sido, -sedi, -sessum. Some give cusi to cudo, but cudi rests on much better authority.
- The perfects of rado and trudo, and the perfect and supine of vado, are seldom used, uncompounded.
- ⁶ Thus also the double compounds decondo, recondo, coaddo, superaddo, deperdo, disperdo. Abscondo has abscondi (seldom abscondidi), absconditum (seldom absconsum). The compounds of do with prepositions are generally of this conjugation. But circundo is of the first. Interdare, superdare, superdandus, introdabat, may be found, but are not to be imitated.
- 7 The compounds of cado; as, ac-con-de-ex-inter-pro-suc-cădo, have no supine. But, in-oc-re-cădo, -casum. These are all neuter.

* The compounds change α into $\bar{\imath}$; as, αbs -con-circum-de-ex-in-inter- oc- per- $pr\alpha$ - re-suc- $c\bar{\imath}$ do. These are all active.

Distinguish abscido, abscidi from cædo, and abscido, abscidi from scindo. Observe also that the compounds of cædo have but

Edo¹, edi, esum, edere, to cat.
(uncommon, estum, esse,)
Findo², fidi, fissum, to cleave.
Fundo, fudi, fusum, to pour out.
Pando³, pandi, passum, to open.
Pedo¹, pepēdi, *peditum, to break wind.
Pendo, pependi, pensum, to weigh.
(pendi, perhaps once in Livy,)
Scindo⁵, scidi, scissum, to cut.
Tendo⁶, tĕtendi, tensum, to stretch.
tentum,
Tundo¹, tutudi, tunsum, to beat.
tusum,

Go and guo make -xi, -ctum; as, rego8, rexi, rectum, to rule.

EXCEPTIONS.

Agos, egi, actum, to act.

one s in their supine; those of scindo have a double s. Neither the compounds of cado, nor of cædo, retain the reduplication of the perfect.

- 1 Comestus is found, but it is better to say comesus, as we say ambesus, peresus, &c. Edo and its compounds are generally regular.
- The participle fissus is to be distinguished from fisus of fido. Another verb in ndo retains the n in the perfect, viz. frendo, but its participle is fressus, or fresus, as if from fressum or fresum.
- ³ Some give pansum to pando. Expansus is found; also dispansus.
- 4 Some deny peditum; but the verbal peditum is found in Catullus.
 - 5 Distinguish conscissum of conscindo from concisum of concido.
- ⁶ Tentum is most common in the compounds. Extensum and extentum are used promiscuously. Ostendo has oftener ostensum than ostentum. The compounds having tentus are not easily distinguished from those of teneo.
 - 7 The compounds have commonly -tusum.
- Pergo and surgo -rexi, -rectum. Thus also ar- cor- di- e- porsur- rigo. Some consider pergo as a compound of rego, and some, of ago.

Deago and conago become dego and cogo. Dego, degi, no su-

pine. Cogo, coegi, coactum.

Ambigo and vergo want perfect and supine. Clango, ningo, ango, satago, prodigo, have no supine. Sugo and lingo, rarely. Suctus is in Pliny. The supine of lingo is linctum, whence the verbal linctus in Pliny, who uses also linctum sulphur.

Figo, fixi, fixum, to fix, (fictus, rarò.)
Fingo, finxi, fictum, to feign.
Frango, fregi, fractum, to break.
Frigo, frixi, frixum, to fry.
frictum,

Lego¹, legi, lectum, to read.

Mergo, mersi, mersum, to sink.

Mingo, minxi, mictum, to make water.

* Pago³, pepigi, pactum, to fix in, or bargain.

Pango², panxi, pactum, to strike.

Pingo, pinxi, pictum, to paint.

Pungo³, pupugi, punctum, to prick.

Spargo⁴, sparsi, sparsum, to spread.

Stringo, strinxi, strictum, to bind.

Tango⁴, tetigi, tactum, to touch.

Ho makes -xi, -ctum: as, traho, traxi, tractum, to draw. Io, forms variously: as,

Capio⁴, cepi, captum, to take.
Cupio, cupīvi, cupītum, to wish.
Facio⁴, feci, factum, to make.
Fodio, fodi, fossum, to dig.
Fugio, fugi, fugitum, to flee.
Jacio⁴, jeci, jactum, to throw.
* Lacio⁵, *lexi, *lectum, to allure.
Pario⁶, pepčri, partum, to bring forth.
paritum,

- Di- intel- neg- ligo, -lexi, -lectum. The rest as lego. Some retain the e of lego: as, al- per- præ- re- sub- lego. Others change it into i: as, Col- de- e- recol- se- ligo.
- * Pago is obsolete, instead of which paciscor is used. The compounds of pango, especially those which change a of the present into i, have the perfect of the obsolete pago: as, im-com-suppingo, -pegi, -pactum. Oppango also has -egi, -actum. Circumde-re-pango are said to be formed both ways; but for -panxi, there does not seem to be sufficient authority.
- ³ The compounds have -punxi. Repungo has repupügi or repunxi, but neither is common.
- ⁴ The changes that take place in spargo, tango, capio, facio, jacio, and in many others, when compounded, will be hereafter explained in a connected summary; as these, and the others, undergo similar changes, in a state of composition.
 - 5 Thus the compounds, except elicio which has elicui, elicitum.
- 6 Its compounds belong to the fourth conjugation. Partum contracted for paritum is the more usual. The participle pariturus is found in Cicero, Ovid, &c.

Quatio, *quassi, quassum, to shake. Rapio, rapui, raptum, to snatch. Sapio¹, sapui, ———, to be wise. *Specio³, *spexi, *spectum, to see.

Jo.-Mejo, minxi, mictum, to make water.

Lo3 makes -ui, -itum: as, molo, molui, molitum, to grind.

EXCEPTIONS.

Alo, alui, alĭtum, reg. to nourish.

(altum, by syncope)

* Cello⁴, * cellui, * celsum, to beat, excel.

Colo⁵, colui, cultum, to till.

Consulo, consului, consultum, to advise, or consult.

Fallo, fefelli, falsum, to deceive.

Pello, pepŭli, pulsum, to beat.

Psallo, psalli, ———, to play on an instrument.

Sallo, salli, salsum, to salt.

Tollo⁶, sustuli, sublatum, to lift up.

Vello⁷, velli, vulsum, to pull.

vulsi,

- The usual perfect is sapui; but it had sapivi and sapii; whence its compounds resipio and desipio had also -ivi or -ui, but the latter is preferable. Resipisse and sapisti, formed by syncope, are found, the one in Terence, and the other in Martial.
- This verb is obsolete; but its compounds are thus formed. Conspicor and suspicor, formed from it, are deponents of the first conjugation.
- Nolo, volo, malo, refello, have no supine. Attollo and recello no perfect or supine. Ante- ex- præ- cello, no supine.
- Celsus the adjective is used. Ante-ex-præ-cello, -cellui. Excelsus and præcelsus seem to be adjectives. The dictionaries give recello a perfect, without sufficient authority. Percello has perculi, perculsum. Perculsi seems unwarranted.
- ⁵ Thus its compounds, and occulo, which changes o into u. Accolo and circumcolo have no supines. Incultus does not come from incolo, but is a compound of the participle cultus.
- ⁶ The perfect and supine of tollo come from sustollo. They are likewise borrowed by suffero. In the same way extuli and elatum, from extollo, are lent to effero, when it is used in a similar signification.
- Thus, a-con-e-inter-pra-re-vello; but generally de-di-per-vello, -velli, -vulsum. This distinction is not rigidly observed.

Mo1 makes ui, itum: as, fremo, fremui, fremitum, to roar.

EXCEPTIONS.

Como⁹, comsi, comtum, to deck.
Demo², demsi, demtum, to take away.
Emo, emi, emtum, to buy.
Premo, pressi, pressum, to press.
Promo, promsi, promtum, to bring out.
Sumo, sumsi, sumtum, to take.

No forms variously: as,

Cano, cecini, cantum, to sing, comp. -cinui and -centum.
Cerno³, crevi, cretum, to see.
Gigno⁴, genui, genitum, to beget.
Lino⁵, levi, litum, to daub.
livi,
lini.

Pono, posui, positum⁶, to place. Sino⁷, sivi, sĭtum, to permit. Sperno, sprevi, spretum, to despise. Sterno⁸, stravi, stratum, to lay flat. Temno⁹, *temsi, *temtum, to despise.

¹ Tremo and its compounds have no supine.

* The perfects and supines of como, demo, promo, sumo, temno, and the supine of emo, are commonly written with a p; thus, compsi, emptus, &c. It has been wished to appropriate -psi and -ptum to verbs in -po. The latter mode of spelling is certainly the more common, but the former may be more consonant with analogy.

³ Thus, de-dis-ex-in-se-cerno. Cretum is but little used, nor crevi, denoting seeing; but it is used when it means, to declare one's self heir, to decree, or to enter upon an estate.

4 Gigno borrows its perfect and supine from the obsolete geno.

The usual perfect is levi. Lini is said to be in Quintilian. Levi may come from *leo. Livi is in Columella.

⁶ Repôstus for repositus is a frequent poetical contraction; also

compôstus, for compositus.

⁷ Sivi is sometimes contracted into sii, especially in the compound: as, desino, desivi, but oftener desii. Sini is found in antient authors. Some dictionaries give sinitum, but I find no authority for it.

⁸ Consterno is of the first conjugation, when it denotes mental agitation; when it is applied to body, it is of the third; but this distinction is not rigidly observed. The same remark is applicable to exsterno.

The perfect and supine of this verb are not used out of composition; but contemno, contemsi, contemtum. See note 2.

Po makes psi, ptum: as, carpo, carpsi, carptum, to pluck.

EXCEPTIONS.

Rumpo, rupi, ruptum, to break. Strepo, strepui, strepitum, to make a noise.

Quo.—There are only two in quo;
Coquo, coxi, coctum, to boil.
Linquo', liqui, *lictum, to leave.

Ro2 makes ssi, stum: as, gero, gessi, gestum, to carry.

EXCEPTIONS.

Curro, cucurri, cursum, to run.
Fero, tuli, latum, to bear.
Quaro, quæsīvi, quæsītum, to seek.
* Sero³, *serui, * sertum, to lay in order.
Sero⁴, sevi, satum, to sow.
Tero, trīvi, trītum, to wear.
Verro⁵, verri, versum, to sweep.

- 1 De- re- dere- linguo, -liqui, -lictum.
- Furo and suffero have no perfect or supines. This is said of suffero, signifying bearing or suffering; but when it signifies to carry away, it borrows sustuli and sublatum from tollo or sustollo; yet, some grammarians deny a preterite and supine to suffero, in any sense, and always refer sustuli and sublatum to tollo. Indeed, there seems some disagreement among grammarians, in regard to these verbs; many, guided by a certain analogy, asserting that the preterite and supine commonly assigned to tollo, come from suffero. In the same way, they refer extuli and elatum to effero, which, they say, lends them to extollo. It seems clear to me, that tuli and latum (said to be a contraction of tolatum,) are borrowed by fero itself from tolo or tulo; and that, if borrowed by the original, simple verb, they must still be considered as borrowed by its compounds. Attuli and allatum are, however, generally referred to affero, as they are not used in the signification of attollo, which, in course, is said to be without preterite or supine.
- ³ The compounds of sero that denote arranging or linking together, are thus formed; being As-con-de-dis-edis-ex-in-intersero.
- * Those that denote planting or sowing, thus: as, as-con-circum-de-dis-in-inter- pro-re-sub-tran-scro, -sevi, -situm, a being changed into i, in the supines.
- Some give verro the perfect versi; but verri is far preferable.

So makes sivi, situm: as, arcesso¹, arcessivi, arcessitum, to send for.

EXCEPTIONS.

Depso³, depsui, depstum, to knead. Incesso, incessi, —, to attack. Pinso, pinsi, pinsitum, to bake. pinsui, pinsum, pistum, Viso³, visi, —, to visit.

To forms variously: thus,

Flecto, flexi, flexum, to bend.

Meto, messui, messum, to reap.

Mitto, misi, missum, to send.

Necto, nexui, nexum, to tie.
nexi,

Peto, petīvi, petītum, to seek.

Pecto, pexi, pexum, to comb.
pexui,

Plecto⁴, plexui, plexum, to plait.
plexi,

Sisto, stiti, statum, to stop (active).

Sisto⁵, —, —, to stand (neuter).

Sterto, stertui, —, to snore.

Verto, verti, versum, to turn.

- ¹ Arcesso, capesso, facesso, lacesso, are said by some to have ii and i, by Syncope. The syncopated perfect is the only one left to incesso. Incessui is once found.
- ² Some grammarians give *depso* no supine. The dictionaries give it *depsitum*, which, by syncope, becomes *depstum*; and hence the participle *depstus*, which Cato uses.
- ³ Reviso and inviso are said by some to have supines; but since visum is denied to viso, as being the supine of video, whence viso itself is formed, upon the same principle invisum and revisum are to be referred to invideo and revideo.
- ⁴ Whether in the sense of plaiting or of punishing, either preterite is very uncommon.
- ⁵ Sisto (neuter) is said to borrow steti, statum from sto—The compounds, have -stiti, -stitum: as, as-circum con-de-ex-ininter-ob-per-re-sub-sisto, -stiti, -stitum. Absisto has no supine; nor are the supines of the others authorized.

Uo¹ makes ui, utum: as, tribuo, tribui, tribūtum, to bestow.

Fluo, fluxi, fluxum, to flow. Ruo², rui, ruitum, to rush. Struo, struxi, structum, to build.

 Vo^3 makes vi, utum: as, volvo, volvi, volutum, to roll.

EXCEPTION.

Vivo, vixi, victum, to live.

Xo4 makes ui, tum: as, texo, texui, textum, to weave.

THE FOURTH CONJUGATION.

The fourth conjugation makes ivi, itum: as, $audio^5$, $audivi^6$, auditum, to hear.

These have no supines: metuo, pluo, congruo, ingruo, respuo, annuo, abnuo, innuo, renuo. Luo has lui (luitum, seldom). Its compounds, lūtum: as, diluo, dilui, dilutum. Batuo and cluo have no supines; but the verbs themselves have become obsolete.

Fluo seems to have had fluctum, as well as fluxum; hence the

verbal fluctus.

- ² The compounds have -rutum. Corruo and irruo are not found in the supine. Eruiturus is found as well as eruturus. Ruiturus is in Lucan.
 - 3 Calvo, calvi, calvere; and calvor, calvi, are obsolete.
- * Nexui and nexum come rather from necto than nexo. Nexo belongs to the first conjugation. But some grammarians write nexo, nexis, nexui, nexum, nexĕre.
- *Eo and queo are the only simple verbs in co that belong to this conjugation, and both have itum in the supine. The compounds likewise; except ambio, ambītum. These want the supine; caccutio, gestio, glocio, dementio, ineptio, ferocio. Obedio (perhaps ob-audio) is a neuter verb; and consequently not used in the passive voice, but as an impersonal verb, hence obeditum est, in Livy. It has obediturus, as if from obeditum, the supine usually given to it. There is not sufficient authority for the supines of as-circum-sub-pro-silio; but the verbs assulto and subsulto; and the nouns assultus and subsultus are found, formed from a supine. Aio and ferio want perfect and supine; but aio has the 2d persons of the perfect. Likewise verbs denoting desire, and ending in -urio; except esurio, -īvi, ītum; parturio -īvi, but for this last there is only modern authority, and perhaps nupturio īvi. Nupturisse—Apuleius. Esuriturus—Ter. Parturiit—Buchanan.
- ⁶ In one instance Cicero is said to have used punitus es, instead of punivisti;—Cujus tu inimicissimum multo crudelius punitus es.

EXCEPTIONS.

Amicio, amicui, amictum, to cover. amixi, (seldom,) amicivi, (malė,)

Cambio, campsi, campsum, to change money. (obs.)

Farcio, farsi, fartum, to cram. Fulcio, fulsi, fultum, to support.

Haurio¹, hausi, haustum, to draw out. (seld. hausum.)

Raucio, rausi, rausum, to be hoarse. Salio², salui, saltum, to leav.

Sancio3, sanxi, sanctum, to ratify.

sancivi, sancitum,
Sarcio, sarsi, sartum, to mend.
Sentio, sensi, sensum, to feel.
Sepelio, sepelivi, sepultum, to bury.

Sepio⁴, sepsi, septum, to inclose.

sepivi, (seld.)
Singultio⁵, singultivi, singultum, to sob.
Veneo⁶, venii, ———, to be sold.
Venio, veni, ventum, to come.
Vincio, vinxi, vinctum, to bind.

- ¹ Hauriturus is found. Hausurus, Virgil. Hausturus, Cicero.
- ² Salio makes salui or salii, but for the former there are superior authorities. The compounds have -silui or -silii, -sultum. Ascircum-sub-pro-sultum, are unauthorized: but some verbs are found which seem formed from assultum and subsultum. See note 5, in the preceding page.
- * Sancivi is sometimes contracted into sancii, as sancitum is into sanctum; and hence the participle sanctus. Sanxi is almost universally used; and sanctus is much more common than sancitus, and rests on much better authority.
- ⁴ Sepivissent is in Livy; or rather perhaps sepissent. But Gronovius conjectures that sepsissent ought to be read. The passage is xLIV. 39.
- ⁵ Singultum, formed, by Syncope, from singultitum, as sepultum is from sepelitum, is preferred to singultitum, on account of the noun singultus derived from it, but neither is common.
- ⁶ Some give veneo a supine, venum; but this is considered as a noun, which, compounded with eo, forms veneo itself. Venii may be contracted from venivi.

Compounds of pario, a verb of the third conjugation.

Aperio 1 Operio } -rui, -rtum, { to open. to cover. Comperio } -ri, -rtum, to find out.

DEPONENT VERBS.

To form the perfect of a deponent verb, suppose an active voice; from the supine of which, formed by preceding rules, comes the participle in -tus, -sus, or -xus, which, added to sum or fui, constitutes the perfect: thus, gratulor, gratulatus sum, as if from gratulo, gratulavi, gratulatum.

FIRST CONJUGATION.

In the first conjugation all the deponent verbs are formed regularly.

SECOND CONJUGATION.

The second conjugation has the following Exceptions.

Fateor, fassus sum, to confess.

Misereor, misertus sum, to pity.

miseritus, (Liv. and others.)

Reor, ratus sum, to think.

THIRD CONJUGATION.

Exceptions.

Apiscor³, aptus sum, to get. Comminiscor, commentus sum, to devise. Expergiscor, experrectus sum, to awake.

- ¹ Thus also the double compounds, adaperio, adoperio, cooperio. Comperi, not compertus sum, is found as the preterite of comperior. Comperio and reperio are perhaps compounds of the obsolete perio or perior, whence periculum, peritus, and experior, are formed, rather than of pario.
- The verb sarrio or sario belongs to this conjugation. It is formed regularly by -ivi, -itum. It has also sarrii; and Mr. R. Johnson quotes two instances from Cat. c. 3, in which sarseris is used as a part of this verb; but may it not come rather from sarcio? Columella uses sarrivisse, xi. 2. Sarueris is said to be found in Cato; but some read sarrieris. In regard to the supine, sarritura is found in Columella; sartura is in Pliny, xviii. 27, which implies the existence of sartum, as well as sarritum.
- ³ Apiscor is but little used: its compounds are adipiscor and indipiscor, -cptus.

Fruor 1, fruitus sum, to enjoy. fructus,

Gradior, gressus sum, to go.

(ol.) grassus, Irascor⁹, iratus sum, to be angry. Labor, lapsus sum, to slide. Loquor, locutus sum, to speak.

loquutus, Morior3, mortuus sum, to die. Nanciscor, nactus sum, to get. Nascor⁴, natus sum, to be born. Nitor5, nisus sum, to endeavour.

nixus.

Obliviscor, oblitus sum, to forget. Orior4, ortus sum, orīri, to rise. Paciscor, pactus sum, to bargain. Patior, passus sum, to suffer. Proficiscor, profectus sum, to go. Queror, questus sum, to complain. Sequor, secutus sum, to follow. sequutus,

Ulciscor, ultus sum, to revenge.

Utor, usus sum, to use.

The verb potior has potiri, and belongs to the fourth conjugation; but is used, by the poets, in the 3d and 4th, who, however, prefer potitur of the third.

FOURTH CONJUGATION.

Exceptions.

Metior, mensus sum, to measure, metitus, (malè.)

Fruitus is said to be the more common; notwithstanding, from fructus come the noun fructus, and the participles perfructus and fructurus. Lucretius uses fructus sum, iii. 953. Perfructus is attributed to Cicero. Fruitus sum is in Seneca, epist. 93.

^a Iratus is considered as an adjective.

- 3 The infinitive of morior is mori; sometimes, as in Plautus and Ovid, moriri. Emoriri is in Terence. The participle is moriturus.
- The future participles active of nascor and orior are also nasciturus and oriturus. In the imperfect subjunctive oriretur is universally found instead of oreretur; also in the compounds. In any other parts, it is seldom found to follow the fourth conjugation.
- * Con- in- ob- re- sub- nitor, -xus oftener than -sus. -xus, and -sus, promiscuously. Enixus is generally applied to a birth; otherwise, enisus.

6 Potitur, Virg. Poteretur, V. Flace. Poteremur, Ovid.

Poterentur, Propert.

Ordior¹, orsus sum, to begin. Experior, expertus sum, to try. Opperior², oppertus sum, (Ter.) to wait for. opperitus, (Plaut.)

COMPOUNDED VERBS.

GENERAL RULE.

Compounded verbs form their perfect and supine in the same manner as the simple verbs: thus, red-amo, red-amavi, red-amatum, to love again.

But the following changes, which happen to the preposition, and to the simple verb, in a state of composition, merit

attention.

A, Ab, Abs.

A is used in composition before m and r. Ab before vowels, and d, f, h, j, l, n, r, s. Before fero and fugio, it becomes au: as, aufero, aufugio. Abs is used before c and t: as, abscedo, abstuli.

Ad.

Ad changes d into the first letter of the simple, beginning with c, f, g, l, n, p, r, s, t: as, accurro, afficio, aggero. In some writers it remains unaltered, as adficio.

Am (ambe or ambi from ἀμφὶ, circum).

Am, before c, q, f, h, is changed into an: as, anquiro, anhelo. Sometimes it assumes its own b: as, ambio.

Circum.

Circum remains unaltered. The m is sometimes changed: as, circundo for circumdo; omitted: as, circueo for circumeo.

- ¹ Some give ordior, orditus, when it signifies to weave; but this rests chiefly on modern authority.
- The following have no perfect; vescor, liquor, medeor, reminiscor, irascor, ringor, prævertor, diffiteor, divertor, defetiscor. Divertor and prævertor are said to borrow perfects from diverto and præverto, for diversus sum and præversus sum are not used. In the same way, revertor, though it has reversus sum, borrows reverti from reverto, which is an uncommon verb. The word rictus is a substantive derived from the obsolete ringo. Diffessus is hardly to be found. Fatiscor is a very uncommon word. Such words as ratus, iratus, fessus, defessus; and cassus and lassus are considered as adjectives.

Con (for cum).

Con, before a vowel or h, drops the n: as, coaleo, cohibeo; before l, its n becomes l, and before b, p, m, it becomes m: and before r it changes n into r; as, colligo, comburo, comparo, commo, corripio. In comburo it assumes b after it.

Di, Dis.

Di is used before d, g, l, m, n, v: as, diduco, digladior. Dis and di before r: as, disrumpo, dirumpo; likewise before j: as, disjudico, dijudico. Dis is used before c, p, q, s, t: as, discumbo, dispello. Before sp and st, s is removed, and before f it is changed into f: as, dispicio, disto, difficer. Before a vowel, it assumes r: as, dirimo, from emo.

E, Ex.

E is found before b, d, g, l, m, n, r, and before j and v: as, ebibo, educo, ejicio, eveho. Ex is used before vowels, and h, c, p, q, t, s: as, exaro, exhibeo, excutio; before f, x becomes f: as, efficio.

In.

In sometimes changes n into the first letter of the simple verb: as, illudo; but before b, m, p, it changes n into m: as, imbibo, immineo, impleo.

Ob.

Ob generally remains unaltered. The b is sometimes omitted, as in *omitto*; or changed into the first letter of the simple verb: as, offero.

Re, Pro.

Re assumes d before d, a vowel, or h: as, reddo, redamo, redeo, redhibeo. Pro likewise sometimes takes a d, as in prodeo.

Sub.

Sub changes b into the consonant of the simple, before c, f, g, m, p, r: as, succedo, suffero, suggero. Submitto and summitto; submoveo and summoveo, are both used.

Trans.

Trans is generally contracted into tra, before d, j, n: as, trado, trajicio, trano; and sometimes before l and m: as, traluceo, trameo. Post becomes pos in postuli. Few if any changes take place in the other prepositions. Other prefixes consist of verbs, as in calefacio, of caleo; of adverbs, as in benefacio, of bene; of participles and adjectives, as in mansuefacio, magnifico, of mansuetus and magnus; of substantives, as in significo, of signum; of a preposition and noun, as in animadverto, of ad and animus.

OF THE PRESENT.

The following simple verbs, when in composition, change a into e:

Arceo	fallo	lacto	patro
* cando	farcio	mando	sacro
capto 1	fatiscor	pario	scando
carpo	gradior	partio	spargo
damno	jacto	patior	tracto.

But we find amando, præmando, prædamno, ablacto (seldom), desacro, pertracto, retracto. Parco makes comparco or comperco. Paciscor makes depeciscor. Canto changes a in occento. Halo with ex remains unaltered; as, exhalo; but we find anhelo.

These change a, æ a	and e ,	into	i.
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Cado	habeo	quæro	statuo
cædo	lædo	rapio	taceo
cano	lateo	salio, to leap	. tango
egeo	placeo	sapio	teneo.

But we find com- per- placeo; pest- ante- habeo. Præhabeo becomes præbeo; oc- re- cano are sometimes found.

These change a and e into i, in the present only.

Ago	fateor	pango	* specio.
apiscor	frango	premo	
capio	jacio	rego	
emo	*lacio	sedeo	

Except coemo, cogo (for con-ago), dego (for de-ago), circum-sat-per-ago. Sursum-erigo (e-rego) becomes surgo, and per-rego² becomes pergo.

- ¹ Such words as the following may be formed at once from the supine of the primitive compounded, viz. accepto from acceptum; delecto from delectum, the supine of the obsolete delicio.
- as a compound of rego, or of ago. From its having an x in the perfect it seems to come from rego. But it may be observed, that x is composed of gs, or of cs, and that the latter of these is sometimes omitted; that facio, although in feci it uses but one of these letters, yet in faxim and faxo (facsim and facso) uses both; that lego, in some of its compounds, has the g only, and in others, the gs or x; and that ago, in the language whence the Latin ago is probably derived, has an x (ξ) in some of its parts; so that the coincidence of the perfects in regard to rego and pergo, does not seem satisfactorily decisive of the derivation of the latter. To

Antecapio and anticipo; superjacio and superjicio are both used. Circum-super-sedeo; de-ob-re-pango. Facio compounded with a preposition changes a into i; as, afficio, interficio. Such compounds have the imperative in e; and form their passive regularly, by adding r to o. The other compounds with verbs, nouns or adjectives, do not change the a, and have the imperative in c, throwing away the e; and their passive voice is like fo: as, calefacio, calefac, calefac. Some compounds with nouns and adjectives, throw away the i which precedes o, and are of the first conjugation: as, significo, lactifico, magnifico.

Specio forms some compounds in the same way; as, conspicor and suspicor, deponents of the first conjugation.

Lego, compounded with con, de, di, e, inter, nec, se, changes c into i: as, colligo, deligo; but al- præ- per- re-sub- trans- lego.

Calco and salto compounded change a into u: as, inculco, insulto.

Plaudo, compounded, changes au into o: as, explodo; except applaudo.

Audio changes au into e in obedio.

Causo, claudo, lavo, quatio, throw away a, and lavo turns v into u: as, accuso, recludo, deluo (or from luo), percutio.

Juro changes u into e in dejero and pejero. Its other compounds retain the u.

OF THE PERFECT.

Compounds throw away the reduplication of the perfect: as, pello, pepuli; compello, compuli. The second conjugation drops the reduplication entirely: as, spondeo, spospondi; respondeo, respondi. The compounds of do, sto, disco and posco, retain it: as, circundedi, addidi, astiti, edidici, depoposci. Prendo for prehendo has prendidi as well as prendi. Repungo retains it in repupugi. Ac- con- de- dis- ex- in- ocper- præ- pro- curro, sometimes have the reduplication, and

this it may be added, that pergo, though neuter, is sometimes used actively, in nearly the same sense as perago; and that as cogo (conago) and colligo (con-lego) convey similar ideas, and are, neither of them, very different from $\sigma vr-\alpha \gamma \omega$, whence ago may be supposed to be derived, it is not very improbable, that ago may, in sense, at least, form the basis of rego, lego, pergo and surgo. Still, upon the score of formation, it is expedient to consider pergo as per-rego. The rest is mere conjecture.

But benefacito, calefacito and the like, are more common than benefac, &c.

sometimes not. Circum-re-suc-trans-curro, seldom or never have it. Some changes in the perfects of certain simple verbs—as, salui into silui; cecini into cinui—have been noticed under their conjugations.

OF THE SUPINE.

These compounded change a into e.

Cantum carptum fartum partum sparsum.

captum factum¹ jactum raptum

Also the participles, aptus, fassus, and passus. Observe that compounds in -do and -go; and the compounds of placeo, habeo, sapio, salio and statuo, though they change a of the simple verb into i, do not take e in their supine: as, recido, recasum; adigo, adactum; displiceo, displicitum; prohibeo, prohibitum; desipio (desipitum²); insilio, insultum; instituo, institutum.

The simple verbs with which the following are compounded, are either obsolete, or but little known; adipiscor, indipiscor, defendo, offendo, aspicio, conspicio, experior, comperior, expedio, impedio, doleo, imbuo, compello- as, appello-as, incendo, accendo, ingruo, congruo, infligo, affligo, confligo, instigo, impleo, compleo, renideo, conniveo, percello, ime- præ- mineo, allicio, illicio, induo, exuo, and some others.

OF VERBS DEFECTIVE IN THEIR PRIMARY PARTS.

The following lines contain a connected view of the principal verbs that are defective in perfects or supines.

SUPINES.

These have no supines:

The compounds of nuo and gruo.

Those of cado; except incido, occido, recido.

Neuters in -veo; and arceo⁸.

Neuters in co, ui; except caleo, careo, coaleo, doleo, jacco, lateo³, licco, merco, noceo, oleo, pareo, placeo, taceo³, valeo.

The rest are comprehended in these verses:

- ¹ In the compounds only that change a of the present into i.
- ² This word does not appear to have a supine.
- ³ See arceo, lateo, taceo, in the second conjugation, luo in the third, and mico in the first. Several additional remarks on simple and compound verbs will be found under their respective conjugations.

Algeo cum timeo, sic urgeo, lugeo, fulgeo. Frigeo, cum sileo, sic turgeo, luceo, strideo: Ango, clango, luo1, disco, compesco, quinisco, Dego, lambo, mico', dispesco, posco, refello, Incesso, metuo, ningo, cum prodigo, psallo, Strido, scabo, pluo, sido, cum respuo, rudo, Sterto, tremo, sapio, satago, cum veneo, viso; Cæcutit, glocio, dementio, gestit, ineptit, His et prosilio2, pariterque ferocio jungas.

These have neither perfect nor supine. Verbs in -sco, that signify to grow, or to begin; Verbs in -urio, signifying desire; except parturio, esurio,

and nupturio. Also

Flaveo, cum scateo, liveoque, renideo, polleo, Nexo, aveo, denseo, glabreo, cum lacteo, mœreo; Ambigo, sisto 3, furo, ferio, labo, vergo, recello, Divertor, plico, prævertor, liquet et reminiscor, Diffiteor, ringor, medeor, vescorque, liquorque.

Verbs which borrow tenses from others:

Inceptives in -sco borrow their perfects from their primitives: as, tepesco, tepui, from tepeo: - their supines also: as, abolesco, -evi, -itum, from aboleo.

Ferio, percussi, percussum, from percutio; Fero, tuli, latum, from tulo; Furo, insanivi, insanitum, from insanio; Meio, minxi, mictum, from mingo; Sido, sedi, sessum, from sedeo; Sum, fui, futurus, from fuo, obsolete; Tollo, sustuli, sublatum, from suffero, or rather sustollo; Liquor, liquefactus sum, from liquefio; Medeor, medicatus sum, from medicor, deponent: Reminiscor, recordatus sum, from recordor;

¹ See note 3, in the preceding page. ⁹ See salio, in the fourth conjugation. 3 Sisto neuter. See sisto, third conjugation.

Vescor, pastus sum, from pascor4, &c.

4 Whether, strictly speaking, all these perfects and supines can be said to be really borrowed by the defective verbs, or to be used *instead* of their defective tenses, it is perhaps impossible, nor is it of much importance, to determine. At any rate, they are used in the same, or nearly the same, signification, in which the defective tenses would have been used; but still, it may be, that they are used, not as upon loan, but chiefly as tenses of their own verbs, with whose signification that of the defective verbs happens to coincide.

NEUTER-PASSIVE VERBS.

Audeo, gaudeo, soleo, fido, and fio. The first four, neuter verbs, though they have an active termination, have a passive preterite; and hence their name. The simple tenses are active in termination, the compound, passive. They are thus conjugated.

Audeo¹, ausus sum, audere, to dare, Gaudeo, gavisus sum, gaudere, to rejoice, Soleo², solitus sum, solere, to use, Fido³, fisus sum, fidere, to trust—of the 3d.

Fio 1, factus sum, fieri, to be made—of the 3d or 4th.

The following peculiarities happen to words which are not commonly deemed defective, nor very irregular in their termination.

Neither dor nor der⁵, the presents passive of do, nor for nor fer are used; we say daris vel dare, &c.; faris vel fare, &c. But in composition we find addor, condor, &c. Effor and affor are scarcely used.

Furo is not used in the first person singular of the present

indicative.

Sci, the second person singular of the imperative of scio, is obsolete.

Dic, duc, fac, fer, are used as imperatives instead of dice, duce, &c. Face, adduce, abduce, dice, edice, addice and indice are found, but very seldom. The compounds of facio, that change a into i, as has been formerly mentioned, retain the e; as, affice, infice, perfice.

ABUNDANTS.

Of the abundants, some abound in signification, being

¹ Audendus is used by Livy; and auderi is used by Cornelius.

⁹ Soluerat is attributed to Sallust.

Thus confido, and diffido. Confido has confidi also, accord-

ing to Livy; and diffidi is in Quintilian.

Thus the compounds of facio with nouns, verbs or adverbs. Fio is the passive voice of facio. To these, some add mæreo, mæstus sum, mærere. Mæstus sum belongs also to mæreor; and by some mæstus is considered merely as an adjective. Exulo, liceo, vapulo, and veneo, are neuter verbs, and, because expressed in English by the passive voice, have been termed neuter-passives. Liceor is a deponent verb, and has an active signification.

Deris and demur, and the other parts of faris (except fatur, fare of the imperative, fans, fatus and fandus, fandi and fando)

seem obsolete. Virgil uses fabor. Æn. i. 261.

cither neuter, or active: as, manco, I remain, or I wait for; some have an active or passive signification: as, criminor, I blame or am blamed.

Others abound in termination: as, assentio and assentior. Others in conjugation: as, of

Note—That orior and potior are always of the 4th, in the infinitive.

Others abound in certain tenses. Thus the following are said to have a perfect of an active or a passive termination; juro, nubo, placeo, punio, suesco. The abundant impersonals will be found among the Impersonals. Edo, an abundant, will be found among the Irregulars. Among abundants (but it is a misapplication of the term), have sometimes been reckoned verbs which, in some of their principal parts, resemble each other; but which differ in their signification, and often in their conjugation.

Some agree in the present: as,

Aggero, -as, to heap up.
Appello, -as, to call.
Compello, -as, to address.
Colligo, -as, to bind.
Consterno, -as, to astonish.
Effero, -as, to enrage.
Fundo, -as, to found.
Mando, -as, to command.
Obsero, -as, to lock.
Volo, -as, to fly.

Aggero, -is, to bring together. Appello, -is, to arrive. Compello, -is, to compel. Colligo, -is, to collect. Consterno, -is, to strew. Effero, -iers, to bring out. Fundo, -is, to pour out. Mando, -is, to chew. Obsero, -is, to sow over. Volo, vis, to will.

Some change their quantity likewise: as,

Cōlo, -as, to strain. Dĭco, -as, to dedicate. Edŭco, -as, to educate. Cŏlo, -is, to till. Dīco, -is, to say. Edūco, -is, to bring out. Lēgo, -as, to send. Vado, -as, to wade. Lego, -is, to read. Vādo, -is, to go.

2. Some agree in their perfects: as, Aceo, acui, to be sour. Cresco, crevi, to grow.

Frigeo, frixi, to be cold. Fulgeo, fulsi, to shine. Luceo, luxi, to shine. Paveo, pavi, to be afraid.

Pendeo, pependi', to hang.

Cresco, eretum, to grow. Maneo, mansum, to stay. Sto, statum, to stand. Succenseo, -censum, to be angry.

Teneo, tentum, to hold. Verro, versum, to sweep. Vinco, victum, to conquer. Acuo, acui, to sharpen. Cerno, crevi, to see. Frigo, frixi, to fry. Fulcio, fulsi, to prop. Lugeo, luxi, to mourn. Pasco, pavi, to feed. Pende, pependi, to weigh.

3. Some agree in their supines: as, Cerno, cretum, to see. Mando, mansum, to chew. Sisto, statum, to stop. Succendo, -censum, to burn.

> Tendo, tentum, to stretch. Verto, versum, to turn. Vivo, victum, to live.

IRREGULAR VERBS.

(1) The verbs commonly reckoned irregular are sum, eo, queo, volo, edo, fero, fio, and their compounds.

(2) The compounds of sum are ad-ab-de-inter-in-præob- sub- super- pro- pos- sum. Insum wants the perfect and the parts formed from it. Prosum takes in a d after pro, whenever sum begins with an e. Possum (which is Potsum, for potis- or pote- sum,) changes the t when it is followed by an s, into s. In other respects the t is retained, but the f of sum is thrown out; as, potui, potueram, &c. Potessem and potesse are contracted into possem and posse. Potestur is found in the passive.

(3) The compounds of eo are all conjugated like eo, except ambio, which belongs to the fourth conjugation. Transeo and prætereo have sometimes -iam in the future indicative. In the compounds, ivi, ivisti, &c. are generally con-

tracted into ii, iisti; &c.

To these may be added the compounds of sto and of sisio: thus, consto, constiti; consisto, constiti; insto, institi; insisto, institi, &c. Some have added the compounds of fero and tollo: as, confero, contuli; contollo, contuli; effero, extuli; extollo, extuli; profero, protuli; protollo, protuli. But these preterites are better referred to fero, exclusively. Concerning sustuli, which some refer to suffero, and some to tollo, or sustollo, mention has already been made.

(4) Queo and nequeo are conjugated like eo; but have no imperative mood, or gerunds, and seldom participles. Quitus, queuntur, queatur; nequeor, nequitur are rarely found.

(5) The compounds of volo are noto (non volo) and malo (magis volo). Their gerunds seem to rest on no good au-

thority.

(6) Edo, although reckened among the irregulars, is a regular verb of the third conjugation; but in some parts in which it seems to fall in with sum, it is abundant. Its compounds are conjugated like it. Estur, in the passive, is found as well as editor.

.(7) Fero borrows tuli, and latum (supposed to be contracted for tolatum or tulatum) from the obsolete tulo. Its

compounds are conjugated like it.

(8) Fio is commonly considered as the passive of facio¹, some of the compounds of which have their passive in -fio, and others in -ficior, as has been explained under the Compounded Verbs.

¹ The ingenious author of an excellent little Grammar observes, that " fio is absurdly supposed to be the passive voice of facio; whereas it came from φίω, which gave birth to fui, the perfect of sum." Is not this remark rather harsh; and does it not involve the very circumstance which the intelligent author wishes to reprehend? It is certainly true that for comes from que; hence the obsolete fuo which gives to sum, fui, fueram, forem (or fuerem), fuerim, fuissem, fore (probably fuere), fuisse. Fuot occurs in Virgil, Æn. z. 108. Indeed, to complete the Latin verb of existence, another verb is probably added. "Euus sum, and "euu eo, seem to be kindred verbs, both apparently derived from *\varepsilon\), to go, to come into existence, to be. The Latin sum is formed either from *\varepsilon\), or from *\varepsilon\varepsilon\), the future of *\varepsilon\). According to Varro, the ancients used to say csum, and esumus, estis, esunt. Eram, essem, ero, csse, appear, too, to come from the original eo or eio. Eram is, by termination, obviously a pluperfect, denoting, I had come into existence, I was; essem, a pluperfect subjunctive or potential, denoting I had come into existence, I was, or I would have come into existence, I would be; ero, a future perfect, I shall have come into existence, I shall be; esse, a perfect of the infinitive, to have come, to be come, to be. The word escit occurs in Lucretius, and the compound superescit, in Ennius. Escunt, too, is said to occur in a passage of the 12 tables. The author of the P. Royal Grammar observes, that "escit is used for crit." We ought, probably, however, to read essit; for the ancients formed their perfect subjunctive in ssim, as negassim for negaverim: others, however, doubtless contemplating the obvious relation between sum and eo, conceive that exeo, exit, have been corrupted into esceo, escit, and that, in Lucretius escit, exit, is used merely in the sense of est. We have little doubt, that a common affinity exists generally, in language, between verbs of existence, going, becoming, standing, living, eating, birth, &c. Indeed, in the very terms in which we speak of sum, and some other verbs, as verbs of existence (ex sisto) or as substantive (sub sto) verbs, we imply the relation of standing. In Latin, sto is sometimes used substantively, or as a connecting verb, in a way little different from sum; and in Spanish, estar, the verb denoting to be, or, etymologically, to stand, is always used, under certain established conditions, particularly that of variability in the predicate, as the verb of existence. We say in Latin, quam placidum ventis staret mare, when the sea stood (was) tranquil; and here, too, the use of sto seems to be regulated by the same circumstance as that of the Spanish esto; for were quietness a property or usual attribute of

Their Conjugation.

- (9) Sum and its compounds cannot be classed under any conjugation. It borrows its perfect and future participle from the obsolete fuo of the third.
 - (10) Eo and queo are irregulars, from the fourth.

(11) Volo, nolo, malo, fero, from the third.

(12) Fio, whose infinitive was originally firi, and imperfect subjunctive firem, may be referred to the fourth.

Their Formation.

(13) They are all regular in the formations from the perfect, supine, and infinitive. Their principal irregularity, besides their deficiency, is in the formation from the present, and in the terminations belonging to the present, and to the formation from it, as has been already mentioned in the Rules for the Formation of Verbs.

The following is a Synopsis of the Irregular Verbs.

the sea, it is not probable that sto would be employed. If a Spaniard means to say, "He is at present in ill health," he uses the substantive verb estar, to be, equivalent to the Latin stare; thus, "El esta malo." If he speaks of a man that is habitually or inherently wicked, he employs the substantive verb ser, corresponding to the Latin esse; thus, "El es malo," he is a bad man.

A VIEW OF THE IRREGULAR VERBS.

THE FORMATION.

	to be.	to be able.	to profit.	to go.	to will.	to be unwilling.	to have rather.	to cat.	to bring.	to be made.	to be brought.
.S.	futurus,	1	profuturus, 1	ĭturus,	1	7	1	esurus,	laturus, t	faciendus, t	ferendus,
Participles.		potens,		iens (euntis),	volens,	nolens,	malens,	edens,	ferens,	factus,	latus,
Supines.				ĭtum, u;				esum, u;	latum, u;		
Gerunds.				eundum, i, o, &c.	volendum, i, o;	nolendum, i, o;	malendum, i, o;	edendum, i, o;	ferendum, i, o;		
Infinit.	esse;	bosse;	prodesse;	ire;	velle;	nolle;	malle;	esse) edĕre;	ferre;	fiĕri;	ferri;
Perf.	fui,	potui,	profui,	ivi,	volui,	nolui,	malui,	edi, (es	tuli,	factus sum,	latus sum, ferri;
Pr. Ind.	Sum,	Possum,	Prosum,	Eo,	Volo,	Nolo,	Malo,	Edo,	Fero,	Fio,	Feror,

INDICATIVE MOOD.

Fut.	Ero, -is.	Potero, -is.	Prodero, -is	Ibo, -is.	Volam, -es.	Nolam.	Malam.	Edam.	Feram.	Fiam.	Ferar, ēris.	
Imperf.	Eram, -as.	Potěram, -as.	Proděram, -as.	Ibam, -as.	Volebam.	Nolebam.	Malebam.	Edebam.	Ferebam.	Fiebam.	Ferebar, -aris.	
	sunt.	possunt.	prosunt.	eunt.	volunt.	nolunt.	malunt.	edunt.	ferunt.	fiunt.	feruntur.	
	estis,		prodestis,		vultis,	nonvultis,	mavultis,	estis, editis,	fertis,	fitis,	ferimini,	
	sŭmus,	possumus,	prosumus,	imus,	volŭnus,	nolumus,	malumus,	edimus,	ferimus,	fimus,	ferimur,	
Present	est;	potest;	prodest;	it;	vult;	nonvult;	mavult;	est, edit;	fert;	fit,	fertur;	
	es,	potes,	prodes,	is,	VĪS	nonvis,	mavis,	es, edis,	fers,	fīs,	ferris, ferre,	
	Sum,	Possum,	Prosum,	Eo,	,olov K	volov 2	Malo,	Edo,	Fero,	Fio,	Feror,	

		٤.	s (or	·		111.				ES-					eris,	, 52
SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD.		Pres. Imperf.	Essem, -e	Forem).	Possem.	Prodessem.	Irem.	Vellem.	Nollem. Mallem.	Ederem,	sem.	Feram, -as, Ferrem.	į	Fiam, -as, Fierem.	Ferar, -eris, Ferrer, -eris,	-ere, &cere, &c.
CTIVE			, &c.		-Sis,	-sis,	-as,					-as,		-as,	-eris,	&c.
SUBJUN		Pres.	Sim, sīs		Possim,	Prosim, -sis,	Eam,	Velim,	Nolim, -is,	Edam, -as,		Feram,	į	Fiam,	Ferar,	-ere,
		్ట	(sint,) sunto.		(eant), eunto.		ů		(edant.) edunto.			(ferant,) ferunto.		(fiant,) fiunto.	Ferre, fertor; (feratur.) fertor; (feramur.) ferimini, feriminor: (ferantur), feruntor.	
	P lural	1. 2. 3.	(sitis,) este, estote;		ite, itote;		nolīte, nolitote;		$\left\{\begin{array}{c} \text{edite, editote;} \\ \text{edamus} \end{array}\right\}$,		(feramus;) ferte, fertote;	1	(fiamus;) fite, fitote;	ferimini, feriminor:	
IMPERATIVE I MOOD.		1.	(simus;)		(eamus;) ite, itote;				(edamus)			(feramus;)	•	(fiamus;)	(feramur:)	
IMPERAT	ur.	ಲ್	(sit,) esto;		(eat,) ito;				$(edat,) edito;$ $\begin{cases} vel \end{cases}$	esto;		(ferat,) ferto;		(fiat,) fito;	(feratur,) fertor;	
	Singular.	25	(Sis,) es, esto; (sit,) esto;		I, ito;		Noli, nolito;		Ede, edito;	es, esto;		Fer, ferto;	İ	Fi, fito;	Ferre, fertor;	

1 Possum, volo, malo, have no imperative mood.

IMPERSONAL VERBS.

Impersonal verbs are not declined in the first or second person, but only in the third person singular; they never admit a person as their nominative; and, when literally translated, have, in English, the word *it* before them.

OF THEIR VOICE, CONJUGATION, AND INFLECTION.

(1) There are impersonals in both voices.

Some belong to the first conjugation: as, constat, juvat, præstat.

Some to the second: as, decet, oportet, panitet. Some to the third: as, accidit, conducit, fugit. Some to the fourth: as, convenit, expedit.

Some are irregular: as, interest and other compounds of

sum, fit, præterit, nequit, subit, confert, refert, &c.

The regular impersonals are inflected like the third persons singular of their respective voices and conjugations; the irregular, like the third person singular of those personal verbs, whence they are formed, or with which they are compounded. But in the perfect, miseret has misertum est; teedet has tæduit, and the compound pertæsum est; placet, libet, licet, pudet, piget, -uit and -itum est. Liquet has no perfect.

(2) Impersonals of the active voice have of the infinitive the present and perfect only; they want the imperative, (instead of which is used the present of the subjunctive,) and generally participles, gerunds, and supines.

Passive impersonals have all the infinitive.

(3) The first supine of the personal verb, or the neuter gender of the perfect participle, with the verb *sum*, constitutes the compound tenses of the passive voice.

PERSONALS USED IMPERSONALLY.

(4) Many personal verbs are used as impersonals, with an infinitive after them, or the subjunctive mood and ut: as, delecto, juvo, appareo, attineo, incipio, conduco, expedio, convenio, &c. But it is to be observed, that, although many of these are used personally: as, Tu mihi places; Filius patrem delectat; yet they are always used impersonally when followed by an infinitive, or subjunctive mood. For we do not say Si places audire, but Si placet tibi audire; not Ego contigi esse domi, but Me contigit esse domi; not Ille evenit mori, but Illum mori evenit, or ut ille more estav.

The following is a rule for ascertaining when these and similar verbs are to be used personally, and when imperson-

ally.

Observe, That if the person mentioned in English as constituting the subject of these verbs be active, that is, doing any thing, a personal verb must be used: as, I please you, Placeo tibi.

But, if the person be suffering, an impersonal verb must be used: as, I please to hear, or I am pleased to hear, *Placet mihi audire*, i. e. to hear pleases me. If an infinitive follows in English, the verb is impersonal; if not, it is generally personal.

IMPERSONALS USED PERSONALLY.

(5) On the other hand, impersonals are sometimes, though rarely, used as personal verbs: as, Athenienses, sicut primi defecerant, ita primi pænitere cæperunt—Justin. instead of primos pænitere cæpit. Non te hæc pudent—Ter. Quo in genere multa peccantur—Cic. This happens particularly with some adjectives of the neuter gender: as, Aliquid peccatur vitio praccipientium—Sen. Ne quid in eo genere peccetur—Cic.

TWO SUPPOSED KINDS OF IMPERSONALS.

- (6) Miseret, piget, pudet, panitet, tadet; lucescit, vesperascit, pluit, tonat, fulgurat, fulminat, flat, ningit, rorat, hyemat, serenat, lapidet, gelat, grandinat, and the like; and neuter and active verbs used impersonally: as, curritur, vivitur, itur, turbatur, agitur, &c., are said to involve their nominatives in themselves; although it may be observed, that Miseret me tui is not essentially different from Ego tui misereor; nor Panitet me conditionis, from the words of Plautus, Conditio me panitet; and Panitet me hoc fecisse is not different from Hoc factum me panitet. The same thing may be said of Non me hoc dicere pudebit; so that, strictly speaking, only those impersonals mentioned above, denoting certain operations of nature, and passive impersonals, formed. from active or neuter verbs, can be said to contain their nominatives in themselves; and even to these, some would supply Deus, Natura, or the matter of the verb, as their nominative.
- (7) Other verbs, as, oportet, libet, liquet, licet, est and its compounds, refert, deect, delectat, juvat, &c., are supposed to have hec, illud, or id, referring to the words following,

understood, as a nominative, or the infinitive mood, or part of a sentence 1.

(8) The infinitive mood of both kinds is used impersonally: as, Terrâ multifariam pluisse nunciatum est—Liv. Quam multitudo resisti posse Appio crederet—Id.

THEIR ENGLISH.

(9) Although, in a literal translation, impersonal verbs have it before them, it is better, according to the English idiom, to adopt the person as the nominative: as, Licet mihi, It is allowed to me; rather, I am allowed. Paritet me, I repent. Pugnatur a me, a te, ab illo, &c., I fight, thou fightest, he fights, &c.

THEIR NOMINATIVE.

(10) There have been great disputes among grammarians about the nominative understood before impersonal verbs, when it cannot be obviously supplied by some pronoun understood, infinitive mood, or part of a sentence. Some have supposed res, negotium, natura, &c., or a nominative of cognate signification with the verb, to be understood. None of these suppositions is found applicable in every instance. The truth, perhaps, is, that no nominative is, or ever was, understood; but that such impersonals, before the distinctions in language arising from the analysis of a proposition into its constituent parts of a subject and predicate, (the latter comprehending the copula, or word of assertion, and the attribute) were attended to, originally constituted a compendious and simple method of expressing, in one word, an entire event in the aggregate, especially in regard to those operations of nature, beyond human power, and in which the subject or agent is invisible; and that pluit, in itself, is fully equivalent to It rains, Rain is or falls, Imber decidit, or Tempestas est pluvialis.

But they have never been supposed to have a person as their nominative, and hence arises the name, Impersonal. This observation may be extended further, for they do not admit as a nominative the name of any animated being.

¹ Cæsar says, Cæsari quum id nunciatum esset, eos per provinciam nostram iter facere conari; in which id is the nominative to the verb, and refers to the words which constitute the real subject, or nominative, eos per provinciam nostram iter facere conari. Whether or not nunciatum est be here considered as impersonal, the insertion of id seems unnecessary.

Although several of the irregular verbs are a little deficient, yet those only which have but few of their parts are called

DEFECTIVE VERBS.

							Part.
luentry round.		၈၁	ainnt.	aiebant.	İ	İ	aiant.
ers, are not tree	Plural.	2.		aiebatis,	*aistis,		aiatis,
pernaps some otne		1.		1, aiebas, aiebat, *aiebamus, aiebatis, a			*aiamus,
s marked ("), and		ಕ್ಕ	ait,	aiebat,		-	aiat,
Lane words thu	Singular	2.	ais,	aiebas,	aisti,	ai,	aias,
		1.	Aio,	I say. Aieban			
			Pres.	Imp.	Pert.	Fr.	Pr.
			Ind.			Imp.	Subj.

aiens.

					Part. inquiens.
inquiunt.	inquiebant.				
inquĭtis,					
inquimus,					
inquit,	inquiebat,		inquiet,	(inquiat,)	inquiat,
} inquis,		inquisti,	inquies,	inque,	
* Inquio, Inquam,					
Pr.	Imp.	Perf.	Fut.	Pr.	Pr.
Ind. Pr.				Imp.	Subj.

		Inf. fore.	Confore, To happen.			Inf. avere, to be well.
	3.	forent.	-	*ausint.	faxint. faxint.	
Plural.	øi	forētis,			* faxitis, faxitis,	avēte, avetōte.
	-	forēmus,			*faximus, *faximus,	
7.	တိ	· foret,		ausit,	faxit, faxit,	thou well.
Singular.	25	fores, foret,		ausis,	faxĭs, faxĭs, ½ do.	ave -ēto, Hail, or Be thou well.
	1.	Imp. Forem, Plup. $I = I = I I I I I I I I I I I I I I I $		Ausim, I dare.	Subj. { Ferf. Faxim¹, fa Faxo¹, fa I may or will do.	
		Imp.	Inf.	Subj. Pr.	Perf. Fut.	Imp. Pr.
	~	Subj.		Subj	Subj.	Imp.

1 These were used instead of fecerim and fecero; ausim seems also a contraction of auserim.

Inf. salvēre, to be safe.		Part. *quæsens.		Inf. confieri.
e,				
Plural, 2. salvēte, salvetote,	cedĭte,			
1.		* quæsit, quæsümus.		
3, 3, 3, 3, 3, 3, 3, 3, 3, 3, 3, 3, 3, 3		*quæsit,	infit, he begins.	confit, it is done. confieret,
Singular. 2. 3. salvēbis, salvēbis, Hail, or Be thou safe.	cedo,	*quæsis,		
1. Salveo, I am safe.	Tell, or Give me.	Ind. Pr. Quæso, *quæsis, Inf. Pr. *Quæsĕre, ——		
Ind. Pr. S Fut. – Imp. Pr. –	Imp. Pr.	Ind. Pr. Inf. Pr.	Ind. Pr.	Ind. Pr. Subj. Imp

⁴ Apagete is said to occur in Cicero, Plautus, Terence, and Apuleius; but editions vary, apage te being more frequent.

THE PRETERITIVE VERBS.

(1) So called from their having little more than preterites and the formation from these, are odi, memini, and cœpi. They have, in their perfects, the signification of the present also: in the pluperfect, that of the perfect also; and in the future of the subjunctive, that of the future indicative also.—It is because novi sometimes signifies I know, that it is ranked among these, for it is the perfect of the verb nosco, which is complete.

(2) Odi has the participle osus, which signifies actively, and the future participle osurus. Its compounds perosus and exosus are used, but not perodi or exodi; and they sig-

nify actively, and sometimes passively.

(3) Memini has also the imperative, in the second persons singular and plural, namely, memento, mementote.

(4) Cæpi has also its perfect participle cæptus, which sig-

nifies passively; and the future participle cæpturus.

(5) Oditur, odiaris, odiatur, odientes; meminens; capio, capiam, caperet, captu, are sometimes found.

CONTRACTIONS.

The poets sometimes use sis for si vis; sultis for si vultis; sodes for si audes; capsis for cape si vis, or perhaps for ceperis; to which may be added abisis, videsis, cavesis, apagesis, in which sis seems to be added to diminish the harshness of the imperative.

ADVERBS.

The principal thing to be considered in an adverb, is its signification. Adverbs are joined to verbs, participles, adjectives, or to other adverbs, to express some circumstance, or the quality and manner of their signification. Some are

primitive: as, cras, jam, ubi, temere.

They are, however, generally derivatives from nouns, pronouns, verbs, participles, and prepositions. 1. From nouns; as, viritim from vir; docte from doctus. Many of the words deemed adverbs are nouns; as words in um and o, primum, primo, mutuo, modo, &c.; comparatives, as, amplius, melius, &c.; and tempori, luci, vesperi, antient ablatives; rite for ritu, diu, noctu, forte, &c.; alias may be alias res; una, una operâ; recta, recta viâ. In forming adverbs from adjectives or par-

[•] It is doubtful, whether capi ever denotes present time. From capi comes occapi, found in Terence and Tacitus. Occepi and incepi, of occipio and incipio, are formed, not from capi, but the kindred verb capio.—Oderit and oderint are sometimes used imperatively; as Oderint, dum metuant. Vide Cic. off. i. 28, and Senec. do irâ, i. 16.

ticiples, the o of the ablative seems to be generally changed into e, as, recte. To the ablative in te, r is added, to i is added ter; as, diligenter, fortiter. But facile, as well as faciliter: simul, together, as well as similiter, from similis; omnino, from omnis; and repente, from repens. From firmus, too, we have firmiter and firme. 2. From pronouns; as, hic, eo, qui, from hic, is, quis. Most of these end in c, a, or o, as, huc, ea, quo, many of which are really pronouns. Quam, than, is an accusative; and quum or cum, when, is quem or quom, which appears to have been applied to all genders. Quo, whither, is said to be an antient dative singular, or accusative plural, to which may be added co and illo. Qui, how, is an ablative, said to be used in both numbers, and in every gender. 3. From verbs; as, casim, punctim, from cado, These generally end in im, and seem to come from the supine or perfect participle. 4. From participles; as, amanter, simulate, merito, &c. 5. From prepositions; as, intro, citro, ultro, clanculum, from intra, citra, ultra, clam.

They are likewise formed by composition, in various ways; as, hodie, today, from hoc die; postridie, the following day, from postero die; scilicet, namely, from scire licet; quam-

obrem, wherefore, from ob quam rem, &c.

The numerous classes into which they are divided, may be left to be learned by practice. The following distinction in adverbs of place should be attended to.

In,	To,	Towards,	From,	By—a place.
Hic,	huc,	horsûm,	hinc,	hàc.
illic,	illuc,	illorsùm,	illinc,	illàc.
istic,	istuc, .	istorsùm,	istinc,	istàc.
ibi,	eò,	 ,	inde,	eà.
ubi,	quò,	quorsùm,	unde,	quà.
alibi,	aliò,	aliorsùm,	aliunde,	alià.
ibīdem,	eōdem,	,	indidem,	eādem.
ubilibet,	quolibet,	,	undelibet,	qualibet.
alicubi,	aliquò,	 ,	alicunde,	aliquà.
foris,	foras,	,	foris.	
intus,	intrò,	introrsùm,	intus.	

Adverbs are compared: as,

Positive.	Comparative.	Superlative.
Diu,	diutiùs,	diutissimè.
Satis,	satius,	
Secus,	seciùs or sequiùs,	
Sæpe,	sæpiùs,	sæpissinie.
	tutiùs,	
T CHILLIS,	Pettitus,	Pennissine.

They are generally compared like the adjectives, from which they are derived: as,

Acriter,	acriùs,	acerrimè,	from acer;
benè,	meliùs,	optimè,	from bonus;
celeritèr,	celeriùs,	celerrimè,	from celer;
facilè,	faciliùs,	facillimè,	from facilis;
malè,	pejùs,	pessimè,	from malus;
parùm,		minimè, minimùm,	from parvus;
multùm,	plùs,	plurimùm,	from multus;
propè,	propiùs,	proximè,	from propior;
valdè, for validè,	valdiùs, for	}validissimė,	from validus;
ultrà,	ulteriùs,		from ulterior.

Positive wanting.

Magis, maximė; ocyùs, ocyssimė; priùs, primò, or primum; potius, potissimum. Potissimė is found.

Comparative wanting.

Pænè, pænissimè; nuper, nuperrimè; novè and noviter, novissimè; meritò, meritissimò.

Superlative wanting.

Excusatè, excusatiùs; tempore, or tempori, temporiùs; satis, satiùs; secus, seciùs.

(Obs. 1) Instar and ergô, not being declined, are often ranked among adverbs, but the one may be considered as a triptote, and the other a monoptote. That instar is used as a noun may appear from the following: Unus ille dies mihi quidem immortalitatis instar fuit—Cic. Cujus equi instar pro æde Veneris dedicavit—Suct. Instar montis equum—Virg. Ad instar is attributed to later writers.

(2) Some indeclinable words are said to change their part of speech, according to their signification. *Cum*, when, is considered as an adverb; *although*, a conjunction; and *cum*,

with, as a preposition.

(3) Before, when joined to a verb, is expressed by the adverbs of time, antequam, priusquam. Before, joined to an oblique case of a noun, is made by ante, ad, apud, coram, &c. The same distinction is to be observed between postquam, ubi, cum, ui; and the prepositions, a, ab, de, ex.

(4) The neuter gender of adjectives, both in the singular and plural number, is sometimes used adverbially: as, dulce-ridens, sweetly-smiling; suave-rubens, sweetly-blush-

ing; torva-tuens, sternly-looking; acerba-sonans, harshly-

sounding.

(5) Tantùm, tantò, quantùm, quantò, verùm, verò, solùm, cæterùm, modò, primùm, primò, certò, minùs, temporè, reverà, brevì, profectò (pro facto), and such like, whether adverbs or conjunctions, are in most sentences obviously resolvable into the nominatives, accusatives, or ablatives, of the nouns or adjectives whence they are supposed to be derived. Partim is an old accusative, the same as partem.

(6) Adverbs sometimes connect, like relatives: as, In Hispania ubi (i. e. quo in locó) nullus consul erat, In Spain where there was no consul; Non quaesivit, ubi ipse viveret tutò, sed unde præsidio posset esse civibus, He did not look out for a place in which he himself might be safe, but one from which he might be of service to his countrymen.

(7) Adverbs of time, place, and order, are often used for each other: as, ubi, where, or when; inde, from that time,

or from that place.

(8) Some adverbs denote either past, present, or future time: as, jam, already, now, or by and by; olim, formerly, or hereafter.

(9) Interrogative adverbs doubled, or compounded with cunque, answer to the English soever: as, ubiubi, or ubicunque, wheresoever. Likewise, some other interrogatives: as, quotquot and quoteunque, how many soever; quantus-

quantus, and quantuscunque, how great soever.

(10) In English the same word is sometimes an adverb and an adjective; it is necessary, therefore, in turning it into Latin, to ascertain to which part of speech it belongs: thus, if we say "He was only rich," only is an adverb, and the Latin expression is *Ille* solum erat dives. But if we say "He only was rich," only is an adjective, and this sentence will

be expressed in Latin by Ille solus erat dives.

(11) In Latin, as in English, two negatives in the same clause destroy each other, and render the sense affirmative: as, *Haud ignara mali*, Not unacquainted, (or, acquainted,) with misfortune. Non sum nescius, I am not ignorant, (or, I know). But in many instances they convey the assertion more faintly than an affirmative mode of expression; as, Non parere noluit—Nep. He did not refuse to obey. Among old authors two negatives are sometimes used to render the negation stronger: as, Neque ille haud objiciet mihi—Plaut. Special or particular negations do not destroy the general negation: as, Nulla neque amnem libavit quadrupes, nec graminis attigit herbam—Virg. Neminem neque suo nomine, nec

subscribens, accusavit—Nep. In these, neque and nec must be translated in English by either and or.

PREPOSITIONS.

A preposition is an indeclinable part of speech, generally placed before nouns and pronouns, which it governs, and of which it shows the relation to some other word. The various ways of expressing, in English, their general meaning, will be seen in the following examples.

PREPOSITIONS GOVERNING THE ACCUSATIVE.

Ad, to: as, omnes ad unum, all to a man. At: as, ad præstitutam diem, at the appointed day. According to: as, ad cursum lunæ, according to the course of the moon. After: as, aliquanto ad rem avidior, a little too greedy after money. For: as, rebus ad profectionem comparatis, things being ready for a march. Before: as, ductus est ad magistratum, he was taken before the magistrate, or to the magis-

Apud, at or near: as, apud forum, at the forum. Among: as, apud Sequanos, among the Sequani. With: as, potior apud exercitum, in greater credit with the army. Before: as, causam apud regem dicere, to plead before the king.

Ante, before (in respect to time or place, and opposed to post): as, ante, non post, horam decimam, before, and not after, ten o'clock; ante aciem, non post seu pone aciem, before, and not behind, the army.

Adversus, against: as, adversus hostem, against the ene-Adversum, my. Towards: as, pietas adversus deos, piety towards the gods. To: as, de illa adversus hunc loquere, speak to him of her.

Contra, against: as, contra naturam, against nature. Opposite to: as, Carthago Italiam contra, Carthage

opposite to, or over against, Italy.

about, applied to time, place, persons and things; Circum, I generally to place. It is sometimes rendered with: as, paucæ circum illam, the few with her, or about her.

Circiter, about, applied to time, place, and number.

Cis, on this side: as, cis Euphratem, on this side the Citra, Euphrates. Without: as, citra necessitatem, without necessity.

Erga, towards: as erga amicos, towards his friends. Before, opposite to: as, quæ modo erga ædes habitat, who

lives now before our house.

Extra, without, opposed to intra: as, extra, haud intra, scholam, out of, not in, school. Beyond: as, extra modum, beyond measure. Besides: as, extra famulos, besides the servants; extra jocum, sometimes for sine joco.

Infra, under, below, beneath: as, infra se, beneath himself. Inter, between, among: as, inter fratres, between brothers.

At, or, in time of: as, inter cænam, at, in time of.

during, supper.

Intra, within: as, intra decem annos, within ten years.

Juxta, near: as, juxta viam, by the way.

Ob, for: as, ob quæstum, for gain. Before: as, ob oculos exitium versatur, destruction is before my eyes.

Phrase, Ob industriam, on purpose.

Propter, for: as, propter usum meum, for my use. Near to: as, propter patrem cubantes, lying near their father. The moving cause, or motive: as, propter me, by my means; propter misericordiam, out of pity.

Per, during: as per diem, during day time, or, each day.

By or through: as, per vim, by force; per campos, through the fields. In: as, per ludum et jocum, in sport and jest. Per denotes the instrumentality, or subordinate agency: thus, per eunuchum epistolam misit.

Pone, behind: as, pone ædem, behind the temple.

Præter, beyond, except: as, neminem præter Lucullum vides, you see no one except Lucullus. Beyond: as, præter spem, beyond expectation. Contrary to: as, præter æquum et bonum, contrary to what is just and reasonable. Before: as, præter oculos, before my eyes. Without: as, præter rationem, without reason.

Penes, in the power of: as, penes Pompeium, in Pompey's power. Possession: as, quem penes est virtus, who is possessed of virtue. Phr. Penes te es? are you in your senses?

Post, after: as, post multos annos, after many years. Since: as, post hominum memoriam, since the memory of

man. Behind: as, post tergum, behind or at the back.

Secundum, according to: as, collaudavi te secundum facta,
I praised you according to your deeds. Along:
as, secundum littus, along the shore. Near, hard
by: as, duo vulnera in capite, secundum aurem, accepit, he received two wounds in the head, near
his ear. Next after: as, secundum te, next to you.
For: as, secundum te decrevit, he gave judgment
for you.

Supra, above: as, supra lunam, above the moon. Phr. Ecce supra caput homo sordidus, lo a man extremely sordid. Cun hostes supra caput sint, since the ene-

mies are at hand.

Trans, over, on the other side: as, trans maria, beyond seas. Ultra, beyond: as, ultra Britanniam, beyond Britain. Adverbially, nihil possit ultra, nothing can exceed it.

(Note 1.) Prepositions, when the word which they would govern is suppressed, are often considered as adverbs, although, in reality, they do not cease to be prepositions.

(2.) Many of the rules of syntax arise from a preposition understood. The ablative after comparatives is governed by prx understood; the ablative of cause, manner, and instrument, is governed by a preposition: as is perhaps the ab-

lative absolute, with many similar examples.

(3.) The preposition is sometimes, however, omitted in some examples, in an unusual manner: as, devenêre locos lætos, supply ad; maria aspera juro, supply per; ut se loco movere non possent, supply è or de; si reipublicæ commodo facere posset, supply cum.

PREPOSITIONS GOVERNING THE ABLATIVE.

A, ab, abs, from: as, ab ovo usque ad mala, from beginning to end. By reason of: as, vir ab innocentia clementissimus, a man very mild by reason of his innocence. After: as, hujus à morte, after his death. Against, from or because of: as, à frigore, against, from, or because of, the cold. For: as, à mendacio contra verum stare, to stand for a lie in opposition to truth. Phr. A studiis (minister understood), a director of one's studies; à pedibus, a footman; à rationibus, an accountant.

Absque, without: as, absque causa, without cause. But for:

as, absque te esset, but for you.

Coram denotes nearness, and refers to persons: as, coram

rege, in the presence of the king, or before the king. Coram is nearly synonymous with in con-

spectu.

Cum, with: as, cum exercitu, with the army. At: as, cum primâ luce, at break of day. In: as, dum esses cum imperio, while you were in authority. Phr. Cum bonâ veniâ audire, to hear patiently; cum primis, in the first place.

De, of, concerning: as, de hominibus, of, or concerning, men.

According to: as, de sententiâ meâ, according to
my opinion. After: as, somnus de prandio, sleep
after dinner. From: as, de loco superiore, from the
higher ground. Phr. De integro, afresh; de improviso, unawares; de industriâ, on purpose; de
transverso, across; de meo, at my cost. For: as,
ecquid nos amas de fidicina isthac? do you love us
for that musical girl?

E, ex, out of, from: as, è flammâ, out of the fire. According to: as, status è naturâ, a condition according
to nature. By: as, ex consilio patrum, by the advice of the senators. For: as, magnâ ex parte, for
the most part. Since: as, ex eo die, since that day.
Amongst: as, ex lusionibus multis, amongst many

diversions.

Palam, openly: as, palam omnibus, before all the world.

Præ, in comparison: as, præ nobis, in comparison to us.

Because of: as, præ multitudine, because of the multitude. Before: as, præ oculis, before the eyes.

Through, out of (some passion of the mind): as,

præ metu, through fear.

Pro, instead of; or in exchange for: as, pro illo, instead of him—hence, in defence of. According to: as, pro merito, according to his merit. Before: as, pro castris, before the camp. Considering: as, pro nostrâ amicitiâ te rogo, I ask you in consideration of our friendship. For: as, pro me est, it makes for me. In defence of: as, pro aris et focis, in defence of (for) God and one's country. As: thus, libertatem pro præmio dederunt, they gave him his freedom as a reward.

Sine, without (not having), opposed to cum, with: as, sine

pondere, without weight.

Tenus, as far as, up to: as, capulo tenus, up to the hilt.

Crurum tenus, up to the legs. It follows the ge-

nitive when the word is plural. Also the ablative plural: as, pectoribus tenus, up to the breasts.

PREPOSITIONS GOVERNING TWO CASES.

Clam, unknown to, governs either the accusative or abla-

tive, but more frequently the ablative.

In, into, sub, under, and super, above, govern the accusative when motion to a place is signified. But when motion or rest in a place is signified, in and sub govern the ablative: as, Casar in hiberna exercitum deduxit—Cas. Magna mei sub terras ibit imago—Virg. Super agmina incidit—Virg. Ego in portu navigo—Ter. Recubans sub tegmine fagi—Virg.

Super governs either case, when motion or rest in a place is signified: as, Super Mænandrum amnem posuit castra—Liv. Stratoque super discumbitur ostro—Virg. When it is particularly opposed to subter, it almost always governs

the accusative.

Subter governs either case, but most frequently the accusative, whether motion or rest be denoted: as, Subter fastigia tecti Ænean duxit—Virg. Ilia subter Cæcum vulnus habes—Pers. Subter densâ testudine—Virg.

PREFOSITIONS VARYING THEIR CASE ACCORDING TO THEIR MEANING.

In, put for erga, contra, per, ad, usque ad, apud, super, governs the accusative: as, Amor in patriam—Cic. Impletatem in deos—Cic. Crescit in singulos dies hostium numerus—Cic. Siletur in noctem—Virg. Studebat in cænæ

tempus-Plin. &c.

In, for inter, governs either the accusative or ablative; the accusative, when motion to, or towards, is implied, and the ablative, when motion or rest is denoted: thus, Exercitum in Bellovacos ducit—Ces. i. e. He leads his army among (into the territories of) the Bellovaci. Postquam in vulgus militum elatum est—Ces. After it was made known among the common soldiers. In his fuit Ariovistus—Ces. Among these was Ariovistus.

Sub, for circa, or paulo ante, or paulo post (about), governs the accusative: as, Sub noctem naves solvit—Cæs. i. e. paulo ante. Sub dies festos—Cic. i. e. paulo post. Sub

idem tempus-Liv. i. e. circa or per idem tempus.

Super, for ultra, prater, inter, governs the accusative; but

for de, pro or ob, the ablative: as, Super et Garamantas et Indos Proferet imperium—Virg. Punicum exercitum super morbum etiam fames affecit—Liv. De ejus nequitiá omnes super cænam loquebantur—Plin. Hác super re scribam ad te—Cic. Nec super ipse suá molitur laude laborem—Virg. His accensa super—Virg. i. e. ob hæc.

Tenus and versus, and sometimes penes and usque, are set after the case which they govern; and when the word is plural, tenus generally governs the genitive; also, when we speak of things of which we have naturally but two;

as, crurum tenus, up to the legs.

Prope, versus, usque, procul and circiter may be considered as adverbs: they seem to govern a case by means of a preposition which is generally understood, but sometimes expressed. Clam may perhaps be added.

Observe, that

A and e are used before consonants. Ab and ex, generally before vowels. Abs is generally placed before q and t.

- 1 Several prepositions seem to have had originally the nature of adverbs: such as, adversus, juxta, propter, secus, secundum, the accusative which followed them being supposed to be governed by ud. Some of these are found governing other cases, and sometimes without any regimen. Palam and pone have likewise been excluded from the list of prepositions, the word which they seem to govern being supposed to be governed by coram or post understood .- Other words generally considered as adverbs are found governing the accusative or ablative, like prepositions; or sometimes the genitive. Intus is found with the genitive, the accusative, and the ablative. Foras, with the ablative, in Lucretius; and with the accusative, in the Vulgate. Cominus is found with an accusative. Retro also. Seorsus or scorsum is found with an ablative in Lucretius. Simul is found with an ablative in Horace and Ovid. Desuper and insuper are found governing the accusative, like the simple super. In such instances, either a preposition is understood, or the adverbs are used, after the manner of the Greeks, as prepositions. To these might be added several more; but it may be observed that, in general, such constructions appear to be elliptical. That circiter is, in reality, an adverb, may be inferred from its construction, when there is no ellipsis supposed: as, Circiter pars quarta armis instructa erat-Sall. When it is followed by an accusative, ad, understood, is the governing word. It is sometimes followed by the ablative also: as, Ipse hora circiter diei quarta Britanniam attigit—Cæs.; in which in may be understood, or the ablative may be referred to the question by quando, which will be noticed in Syntax.
- * Ab is often found before consonants, especially those of a softer sound; such as, l, n, r, d, s, and j: as, ab legatis, ab nullo,

A few instances are found in which in, signifying motion to a place, governs the ablative; and in, signifying rest, the accusative: as, Cum divertissem a Cumis in Vestiano—Cic. Venit in senatu—Cic. Esse in amicitiam ditionemque popul i Romani—Cic. Cum talem virum in potestatem haberet—Sall.

[These observations properly belong to Syntax; but the division of the prepositions, according to their government, naturally suggested their introduction here. The subject will be afterwards resumed.]

Prepositions are either primitive: as, ad, apud, ante, &c.; or derivative: as, adversum, from the adjective adversus; secundum, from secundus. They are either simple: as, ad,

ante, abs; or compound: as, exadversum, absque.

There are certain prepositions named inseparable, because they are always found prefixed to a word. The other prepositions also are sometimes used in this way. Their influence, as well as that of the inseparables, am, dis, re, se, con, ve, will be seen in the following examples:

PREPOSITIONS IN COMPOSITION.

- A, abs, ab, from or away: as, averto, I turn away; abstineo, I abstain, or keep from: aufugio, I fly away. A is likewise added to nouns as a privative; as amens, mad.
- Ad, to, or near to: as, accipio, I take to myself. It increaseth: as, adamo, I love much; adbibo, I drink much.
- Am, about, around: as, amburo, I burn all about; anquiro, I seek about, or seek diligently; anceps, that may be taken both ways.

Ante, before: as, anteco, I go before; antemissus, sent before.

De, from, down, much, or ceasing: as, dehortor, I dissuade from; depono, I lay down; deamo, I love much; dedocco, I unteach; despero, I despair; demens, mad; decolor, discoloured.

ab Romanis, ab ducibus, ab senatu, ab Jove. Ex is often used by Cicero before consonants. In certain expressions e is generally used, and in others ex: as, e longinquo, e regione, e vestigio, e re meâ est, &c. In like manner, ex preparato, ex parte, ex compacto, ex toto, ex sententiâ, ex tempore, &c. Abs is sometimes found before s: as, Abs Suessa nunciatum est—Liv. Non abs re erit, in which abs is used before r, is a common mode of expressing Not foreign from the purpose.

Dis, di, separation, or denial: as, distraho, I pull asunder; diffido, I distrust; disputo, I think differently, I dispute. By separating, it implies distinction: as, dijudico, I judge distinctly.

Con, (for cum) together: as, concurro, to run together; contendo, to strive together, or to contend, to exert or stretch (nervos) together; congredior, to come

together; hence, to engage in battle.

E, ex, from, away, greatly, negation: as, expello, I drive away; exoro, I beg earnestly; exuro, I burn up;

exsanguis, bloodless; exanimis, lifeless.

In, in, into, upon, over or against: as, indo, I put in; injicio, I cast into or upon; incipio, I take upon me,
I begin; impono, I put over, I impose; irruo, I
rush upon or against. It sometimes increases:
as, infringo, I break in pieces; induro, I harden
much. In some participials or adjectives it is either
intensive, or privative: as, infractus, unbroken, or
broken in pieces; invocatus, called upon, or unbidden; impotens, weak, or overmighty; infrænatus,
bridled, or unbridled; immutatus, changed, or unchanged. With adjectives it is generally privative:
as, ingratus, ungrateful.

Inter, among or between: as, interjicio, I cast between. Sometimes it increases: as, interbibo, I drink up all.

Ob, against, before, about: as, oppono, I place against or before, I oppose; obambulo, I walk up and down:—
intensive, used for ad: as, obedio, I obey.

Per, signifies through, entirely, very much: as, perlego, I read through: perficio, I finish; peradolescens, very young. It is sometimes privative: as, perfidus, perfidious; perjurus, perjured.

Præ, before, or over: as, præpono, I place before, I prefer; prævaleo, I prevail; præpolleo, I surpass. In adjectives it augments: as, præfacilis, very easy.

Pro, forth, forwards, to a distance: as, produco, I lead forth; prosilio, I leap forwards; prospicio, I see at a distance; prohibeo, I ward off, I prohibit. Sometimes it is privative: as, profanus, profane:—intensive: as, procurvus, very crooked.

Post, after: as, posthabeo, I account after, I postpone.

Re, back again, or against: as, repono, I place again; reluctor, I struggle against; recipio, I take again, I receive. It sometimes increases: as, redundo, I run over, I redound. It is sometimes negative: as, retego, I uncover; recludo, I unlock.

Se, apart, or aside: as, sevoco, I call aside; secludo, I shut

up.

Sub, under, a small degree, or privily: as, subjicio, I cast under; subinvideo, I envy a little; subtristis, somewhat sad: surripio, I steal, or I seize privily.

Super, upon, or over: as, superscribo, I write upon.

Subter, under, privily: as, subterfluo, I run or flow under; subterflugio, I escape privily.

Trans, over: as, transfero, I carry over, I transfer.

Ve, is privative: as, vecors, foolish; vesanus, sickly. It is intensive: as, vehemens', vehement or violent, having strong passions or feelings. It is sometimes both in the same word: as, vegrandis, very great, or very slim.

Other prepositions in composition have nearly the same signification as out of composition. For the changes which, for the sake of sound, prepositions undergo in being prefixed, see Compounded Verbs.

The Manner of expressing in Latin certain English Particles, some of which are denominated Prepositions, and some, the Signs of Cases.

Of, after a substantive (or 's), is the sign of the genitive: as, the father of the king, or the king's father, pater regis.

Of, before an adjective of praise or dispraise, joined to a substantive, shows that it may be put in the genitive or ablative: as, a man of no integrity, homo nullius fidei, or nulli fide.

Of, after adjectives of plenty or want, is the sign of the genitive or ablative: as, full of wine, plenus vini or vino.

Of, after worthy, unworthy, need, descended, born, is the sign of the ablative: as, worthy of praise, dignus laude; there is need of action, opus est facto; born of a king, natus rege.

Of, after comparatives, superlatives, partitives, and certain numerals, is the sign of the genitive: as, the elder of the brothers, senior fratrum; or it may be made by de, e, ex, or inter: as, the elder of the two sons, ex duobus filiis natu major.

¹ Vetus et vehemens, says Stephanus, —" alterum ab ætatis magnitudine, alterum a mentis vi, compositum."

Of, signifying the matter of which a thing is made, is expressed by de, e, or ex: as, a buckler of gold, chypeus ex auro.

Of, for concerning, is expressed by de: as, a story of you, fabula de te; for by or from, by a, ab, e, ex: as, I received the book of (from is more common) the master, librum a præceptore accepi; perhaps you had heard of somebody,

audisti ex aliquo fortasse?

Of, after verbs of accusing, condemning, acquitting,—and I repent (pænitet me), I am ashamed (pudet me), I am weary (tædet me), it irketh (piget),—is a sign of the genitive: as, he accuses me of theft, accusat me furti; it irketh me of (I am grieved for) my folly, me piget stultitiæ meæ.

Of, after mereor, is made by de: as, he deserves praise of

you, de te laudem meretur.

Of, after verbs of unloading and depriving, is the sign of the ablative: as, he robbed his friend of his character, amicum famâ spoliavit.

Of is sometimes included in the Latin verb: as, beware of

intemperance, intemperantiam cave.

To and for are signs of the dative when they come before a noun, and signify to the use or hurt of any person or

thing: as, pleasant to his friends, jucundus amicis.

To,—after it belongs (attinet, pertinet), it regards (spectat), and after some verbs of calling, exhorting, inviting, and provoking; such as, voco, loquor, hortor, invito, lacesso,—is made by ad: as, he invited me to supper, ad cænam me invitavit.

To and for, signifying motion, and after born, fit, prone, ready, are made by ad or in: as, prone to peace, ad pacem pronus.

r · promis.

To is sometimes the sign of the genitive: as, time to write,

tempus scribendi, i. e. time of writing.

To is expressed, according to circumstances, by different parts of a verb: as, I came to dine, veni pransum; a boy about to write, puer scripturus; I desire to be loved, cupio amari; god to be worshipped, deus colendus; a man worthy to be loved, dignus amatu.

To is sometimes included in the verb: as, see to your health,

valetudinem cura; pray to the gods, precare deos.

For;—See the prepositions pro and pra, ob, propter, de, ad,

For, denoting the cause, is a sign of the ablative: as, worse for liberty, licentiâ deterior,

For, before the price, is the sign of the ablative: as, all things are sold for gold, omnia venduntur aurô.

For, in the beginning of a sentence, is made by nam, enim,

etenim, &c.

For is sometimes part of the noun or verb: as, a certain looking-for of judgment, quædam expectatio judicii; he sends for a physician, medicum accersit.

With is found before the cause, manner and instrument, and is a sign of the ablative: as, he killed him with his own hand, manu sua occidit.

With, denoting in company with, or together with, is made by cum: as, he entered with a sword, cum gladio ingressus

est.

With, after verbs of anger, comparing, meeting, is the sign of the dative: as, I am angry with you, tibi irascor; to compare great things with small, parvis componere magna.

With, applied to a person with regard to situation, is made by apud: as, he is with me, or at my house, apud mc est.

With is sometimes the same as concerning, and is made by de: as, what have you done with that horse, quid de isto equo fecisti?

With, after verbs signifying to begin, is made by a or ab: as, I had a mind to begin with that, ab eo exordiri volui.

With is sometimes part of the verb: as, he goes on with his villany, prosequitur suum scelus.

From ;—See the prepositions a, ab, abs, e, ex, de.

From, after verbs of taking away, is the sign of the dative:

as, he took a book from me, eripuit mihi librum.

From, after a verb of hindering or withholding, is expressed by the infinitive mood, or ne, quo minus, and quin, with the subjunctive: as, they hinder them from carrying, cos ferre prohibent; he rescued himself from pleading his cause, ne causam dicerct, se cripuit; weakness kept you from coming, infirmitas te tenuit quo minus venires; I can scarcely refrain from flying in his face, vix me contineo quin involem in capillum.

From, before the name of a town, is the sign of the ablative:

as, he came from London, Londino venit.

From is sometimes part of a verb: as, conceal this matter from your wife, cela hanc rem uxorem.

In ;—See the prepositions in, apud, ad.

In, referring to time, is made by in, de, per, intra, inter: as,

thieves rise by (or in the) night, de nocte surgunt latrones; in the time of the truce, per tempus induciarum.

In, for by or after, is the sign of the ablative of manner: as,

he did it in this way, hoc modo fecit.

In is sometimes a part of the verb: as, they are held-in by reason, a ratione retinentur; i.e. restrained.

By;—See the prepositions a, ab, c, ex, per, propter.

By, signifying near, is made by ad, apud, juxta, prope, secundum and sub; which see.

By denotes the ablative of manner or cause: as, by force and

arms, vi et armis.

By, after verbals in bilis and dus, after passive verbs and perfect participles, among the poets, is the sign of the dative: as, a grove penetrable by no star, lucus nulli penetrabilis astro; nor is he seen by any one, neque cernitur ulli (ab ullo).

By, before the name of a town, is the sign of the ablative; as, he came by London, London, or, per Londonum venit.

By is sometimes included in the verb: as, I was by, ego ad-

At, near, ad, apud; during, in, inter,—which see.

At before names of towns,—see Syntax.

At, after verbs of anger, is the sign of the dative: as, he is angry at me, mihi succenset.

At denotes the ablative of cause: as, I come at the command

of Jupiter, jussu Jovis venio.

At denotes the ablative of time: as, at one o'clock, horâ primâ.

At denotes the ablative of price: as, he lives at an extravagant rate, profusis sumptibus vivit.

At is sometimes part of the verb: as, I laugh at, derideo.

On, upon, a word of place, meaning near, -a, ab, ad.

On, a word of rest, in or super: as, on horseback, in equo. On, a word of motion, in: as, they leapt on the targets, in

scuta salierunt.

On, after to depend or to beget, is made by a, ab, de, c, cx, (but otherwise by in or super): as, this depends upon you, hoc a te pendet.

On, before time, musical instruments, condition, terms, food,

¹ The English now say—"angry at a thing," "angry with a person." It was not so formerly.

&c. is the sign of the ablative: as, on that day, eo die; he plays on the harp, lyrâ modulatur; on this condition, hûc lege.

On, after verbs of pity, is the sign of the genitive: as, take pity on so great misfortunes, miserere laborum tantorum.

- On, after verbs of bestowing, wasting, or losing, is made by in: as, he bestowed kindness upon me, in me beneficium contulit.
- On is sometimes part of the verb: as, he employed his time on his studies, tempus studies impendit; I am thinking on a different thing, aliam rem cogito.

Than after the comparative degree is the sign of the ablative, or it is made by quam and a nominative: as, I never saw a man more valiant than Cæsar, nunquam vidi hominem fortiorem quam Cæsar est, or Cæsare, or quam Cæsarem; which last is governed by vidi, or is said to be coupled by quam to hominem,

CONJUNCTIONS.

A conjunction is an indeclinable word, having no government of nouns; but which connects words and sentences,

and shows their dependence upon one another.

Conjunctions are divided into primitive: such as, et, ac, sed, nam, &c., and derivative: as, quòd from quis, verùm and verò from verus. From their structure, some are called simple: as, at, nam, &c.; others are called compound: as,

atque, namque.

According to their meaning and use, they are divided into numerous classes: as, copulative, et, ac, atque; disjunctive, aut, vel, seu, sive, which two last have been called subjunctive or explanatory: as, Diana sive Luna; Caesar sive Dictator, both words having the same application: concessive, as, etsi, etiamsi; conditional: as, sin, si, dum, dumnodo; with many other classes not necessary to be mentioned.

According to their position in a sentence, they are divided into prepositive, or those which are placed first: as, nam, quare, at, ast, atque, neque; subjunctive, or postpositive, which are not placed first: such as, quidem, quoque, autem, vero, enim; and the enclitics, (so called because they throw the accent upon the preceding syllable of the word to which they are always annexed,) viz. que, ne, and ve. The following are either prepositive or postpositive, and are therefore

named common: etiam, equidem, licet, quamvis, quanquam, tamen, attamen, namque, quod, quia, quoniam, quippe, utpote, ut, uti, ergo, ideo, igitur, idcirco, itaque, proinde, propterea, si, ni, nisi.—Quamvis, quanquam, quod, quia, ut, uti, si, ni, nisi, are generally placed first: tamen and igitur, second.

The same word in English having sometimes different meanings, and, according to the sense, being referred to different parts of speech, it will be expedient for the young learner, in turning English into Latin, to attend to such di-

stinctions as the following.

(1) The word but has two significations. In the first it is equivalent to be-out, and is the same as without, or unless, or sine and nisi, the former of which is a preposition, and the latter a conjunction. But, which in this sense is an exceptive, or word of exclusion, is synonymous with prater, praterquam or nisi: as, I saw nobody but John, Vidi neminem nisi, or prater, Joannem. In the second, it means add, or moreover, and is synonymous with at, ast, (probably contractions for adsit,) autem, caterum. In this sense it is, in English, a copulative, serving to connect what follows it, with a sentence, or part of a sentence, going before: as, nunc omitte, quaso, hunc; caterum posthac si quicquam, nihil precor. But hereafter if he shall do &c. i. e. add this, or another thing, or one thing more, viz. if he shall do any thing.

But, when equivalent to that, is made by quin: as, there is no doubt but—, non est dubium quin—; to only, by tantum, modo, solum: as, they disagree but about one thing, in re una solum dissident; to than, by quam or nisi; as, she does nothing else, but grieve, nil aliud facit, quam dolet.

(2) The word whether, though, in reality, always a pronoun, is considered as sometimes a pronoun, and sometimes a conjunction, because it corresponds to Latin words referred by grammarians to these two species: thus, whether is the richer, uter est ditior? It is also expressed by ne, utrum, an, num, &c.; as, Romæne, an Mitylenes, malles vivere, Whether would you prefer to live at Rome, or at Mitylene? Utrum inscientem eum vultis contra fædera fecisse, an scientem?

The same remark is applicable to the definitives, or adjectives, either and neither: as, I am not so strong as either of you, Minus habeo virium quam vestrum utervis. Either two or none, Vel duo, vel nemo. Neither is very blamable, Neuter est valde reprehendendus. I neither bid you, nor forbid you, Ego neque te jubeo, neque veto.

(3) Both, followed by and, is made by et: as, Both Cæsar and Scipio, Et Cæsar et Scipio. Both the orators (separately), is expressed by Uterque orator. Both the Scipios (together), Ambo Scipiones. This last distinction has not always been attended to.

(4) For, in the beginning of a clause, implying a reason,

is made by nam, enim, etenim.

For, before an oblique case, implying a purpose or intention, is made by the prepositions ob, propter, ad, in; implying an exchange, by pro.

But for is made by absque: as, But for him I should have looked well to myself, Absque eo esset, rectè ego mihi vidis-

sem.

(5) As, denoting manner, similitude or comparison, is expressed by ut, sicut, uti, ac; thus, As in looking-glasses, Uti in speculis. As miserable as I am, Miser æque ac ego.

As, when equivalent to since or because, is expressed by

quoniam, quia, quippe, quod.

(6) Cum and tum, or tum repeated, and tam and quam, are often used in instances in which emphasis or contradistinction is intended: as, He embraces not only all the learned, but particularly Marcellus, Amplectitur cum eruditos omnes, tum imprimis Marcellum. He hates both learning and virtue, Odit tum literas, tum virtutem. I love you as much as myself, Tam te diligo, quam meipsum. The adverb qua repeated is sometimes used in a similar way: as, Famous both (as well) for his father's glory and (as) his own, Insignis quà paternâ gloriâ quà suâ.

INTERJECTIONS.

Interjections are indeclinable words, without any government, and expressing in a brief manner some affection or emotion of the mind. They have been divided into the following classes—expressive of

1. joy; as, evax, hey, brave.

2. grief; as, ah, hei, heu, eheu, ah, alas, woe is me.

3. wonder; as, papæ, oh, strange; vah, ha.

4. praise; as, euge, well done.

5. aversion; as, apage, away, begone.

6. exclamation; as, oh, proh, O.

- 7. surprise or fear; as, atat, ha, aha.
- 8. imprecation; as, væ, woe. 9. laughter; as, ha, ha, he.
- 10. silencing; as, au, 'st, pax, silence, hush, 'st.
- 11. calling; as, eho, io, ho, so, ho, soho, O.
- 12. derision; as, hui, away with.
- 13. attention; as, hem, ha.

Some of these are merely instinctive or mechanical sounds; others have an intrinsic meaning: as, apage, and pax; for both nouns and verbs are sometimes used as if they were interjections: thus, malum! with a mischief! turpe, shameful; sodes, amabo, quæso, prithee. The same interjection sometimes expresses different passions: thus, vah! may express either joy, sorrow, or wonder.

OF THE FIGURES.

Changes in the form or position of words, (which are named metaplasm) are produced by Prosthesis, Epenthesis, Paragoge, Diæresis, Crasis, Aphæresis, Syncope, Apocope, Antithesis, Metathesis, commonly called the Figures of Etymology, but belonging to Prosody likewise; to which may be added Anastrophe and Tmesis, generally used for the sake of the metre; and Archaismus and Hellenismus.

PROSTHESIS adds a letter, or syllable, to the beginning of a word: as, gnatus for natus; tetuli for tuli; eduram for duram. Virg. Geo. iv. 145.—Perhaps, however, natus and tuli may be considered as formed by Aphæresis, from gnatus and tetuli, the former derived from the obsolete geno, or from yuman, and the latter having an augment, after the manner

of the Greeks.

EPENTHESIS inserts a letter, or syllable, in the middle of a word: as, navita, Timolus, alituum, for nauta, Tmolus, alitum.

Paragoge adds a letter, or syllable, to the end: as med, amarier, docerier, avellier, audirier, for me, amari, doceri, avelli, audiri.

DIERESIS is the division of one syllable into two: as, auläi for aulæ; silüæ for silvæ. Vossius is of opinion that etiam is formed a trisyllable by this figure, from et jam.

Crasis or Synæresis is the contraction of two vowels

¹ The antients often added d to a word; thus in the laws of the 12 tables, SED. FRAVDED. ESTOD, i. c. se (or size) fraude esto.

belonging to different syllables, into one syllable: as, venens for vehemens; prendo for prehendo. This and the preceding figure are confined to the poets chiefly.

APHÆRESIS cuts off the first letter, or syllable, of a word: as, brevist, opust, similist, rhabo, in Plautus, for brevis est, opus est, similis est, arrhabo; and tenderant, in Scheca, Herc. fur.

v. 538, instead of tetenderant. See Prosthesis.

Syncope strikes a letter, or syllable, from the middle of a word: as, oraclum, poplus, vinclum, calda, valdius, aspris, repostus, extinxem, dixti, objecsem, collexem, percusti, surrexe, amantûm, deûm, &c.; instead of oraculum, populus, vinculum, calida, validius, asperis, repositus, extinxissem, dixisti, objecissem, collegissem, (is being struck out, and gs turned into x,) percussisti, surrexisse, amantium, deorum.

APOCOPE takes away the final letter, or syllable, of a word: as, men', Antoni, tuguri, puer, prosper; for mene, Antonii,

tugurii, puerus, prosperus.

Antithesis substitutes one letter for another: as, olli and ollis, for illi and illis; faciundum for faciendum; optumus for optimus; publicus for poplicus, or populicus; vult, vultis, for volt, voltis, contractions of volit, volitis.

METATHESIS changes the order of letters in a word: as,

pistris for pristis; Lybia for Libya.

Anastrophe inverts the order of words: as, dare circum, Virg. Æn. ii. 792; erit super, Ovid. Fast. v. 600; facit are, Lucr. vi. 692; instead of circumdare, supererit, arefacit. Thus also, Jovis cum fulmina contra, in Virgil; and also

Transtra per et remos.

TMESIS separates compounded words, in order to put another word between them: as, Quæ me cunque vocant terræ—Virg. Super tibi erunt—Virg. Septem subjecta trioni—Virg. Inque salutatam—Virg. Ob esse sequentem—Plaut. Dum re non sit tamen apse—Lucr.; instead of quæcunque, supererunt, septemtrioni, insalutatamque, obsequentem, reapse, i. e. reipsa. The insertion of que is frequent in Lucretius: as, conque-globata, conque-gregantur, disque-sipatis, inque-gravescunt, perque-plicatis, &c.

Archaismus is the old way of writing: as, aulai, viâs, omneis or omnis, ornati, senati, anuis, curru, diê, scibo, audibo, prohibesso, negassim, duim, siem, expugnassere, impetrassere, capsimus, adaxint, moriri, fuat, here, quase, donicum, nenu, endo or indu; instead of aulæ, viæ, omnes, ornatûs, senatús, anûs, currui, diei, sciam, audiam, prohibuero, negaverim, dem, sim, expugnaturum, impetraturum esse, ceperimus, adegerint, mori, sit, heri, quasi, donec, non, in.

Hellenismus is an imitation of the Greek termination, or declension: as, Helene, Crete, Nymphe, instead of Helena, Creta, Nympha. Also Antiphon, Demiphon, Milon, for Antipho, Demipho, Milo. Thus likewise in the first declension, Gen. aurás; in the second, Gen. Orpheos, Dat. Orphei, Acc. Orphea; in the third, Gen. Pallados, Acc. Pallada, Dat. pl. Troasin, Acc. Troadas.

The following lines contain a concise explanation of the

Figures properly so called.

Prosthesis apponit capiti, sed Aphæresis aufert. Syncopa de medio tollit, sed Epenthesis addit. Abstrahit Apocope fini, sed dat Paragoge. Constringit Crasis, distracta Diæresis effert. Litera si legitur transposta, Metathesis exit. Antithesin, mutata tibi si litera, dices.

OF SYNTAXI.

Syntax is the arrangement³ of words in a sentence, according to the established rules of Concord and Government.

Concord is the agreement of one word with another in certain accidents, as in case, gender, number, or person: thus, *Cicero orator*, Cicero the orator: *Ego amo*, I love.

Government is the power which one word has in determining the state of another: as, Ego virum amo, I love the man.

The arrangement, or order of words in a sentence, will hereafter be no-

ticed.

¹ Such as prefer an English Syntax, will find Mr. Ruddiman's plain, concise, and yet comprehensive. The numerous notes subjoined to it deserve an attentive perusal. An abstract of these rules is now given, with a considerable collection of such notes and observations, as, it is trusted, will be found not undeserving of attention. Those who prefer the Latin Syntax, in the Eton Abridgment of Lily, will find in these notes many things explained, which are either wholly overlooked, or but slightly noticed, in that Syntax.— Each of these two syntaxes, both of which are extremely popular, having a useful system of exercises adapted to it, is one great reason that induced me not to make any material alteration in this division of grammar, either in regard to the subject, the arrangement, or the number, of the rules. One thing is, however, very obvious, that many of what are accounted rules of syntax might be referred to the figures of apposition, ellipsis, &c.

I. OF CONCORD.

The Concords are four;

1. Of an Adjective with a Substantive.

2. Of a Verb with a Nominative.

3. Of a Relative with an Antecedent.

4. Of a Substantive with a Substantive.

RULE I. An adjective agrees with a substantive in gender, number, and case: as,

Vir bonus, A good man.
Fæmina casta, A chaste woman.
Dulce pomum, A sweet apple.

Note 1. Thus also, Nam tua res agitur, paries cum proximus ardet—Hor. An Adjective is often joined in the same case with a personal pronoun: as, Ut se totum ei traderet—Nep. Ipse æger ago—Virg. i. e. ipse ego.

Note 2. Under adjectives are comprehended adjective pronouns, and participles.

Note 3. The substantive is often omitted; and in this case the adjective takes the gender of the substantive understood; as, Per immortales; supply deos. The substantive thing (negotium) is usually understood, the adjective being put in the neuter gender: as, Triste lupus stabulis—Virg.

Note 4. Adjectives are often used substantively; and sometimes substantives are used adjectively: as, Fortunate senex—Virg. Populum late regem—Virg. i. e. regnantem.

Note 5. Several adjectives may agree with one and the same substantive: as, Etiam externos multos claros viros nominarem—Cic.

Note 6. An adjective joined with two substantives of different genders generally agrees with that one which is chiefly the subject of discourse; as, Dein Puteoli, colonia Dicaerchia dicti—Plin. This refers chiefly to such adjectives as appellatus, habitus, creditus, visus, &c. It sometimes agrees with the nearest substantive, although it may not be the principal one; as, Non omnis error stultitia est dicenda—Cic. But if the principal substantive be the name of a man or a woman, the adjective agrees with it: as, Semiramis puer esse credita est—Justin. not creditus. A few instances occurin which the relative agrees with the appellative; but they are not to be imitated.—In such phrases as Maxima pars vulnerati—Sall. Pars in fugam effusi sunt—Liv. the adjective seems to agree with some general word implied in the sense; as, milites or homines.—In some instances, the female seems the leading gender: as, Ille meas errare boves permisit—Virg.

Note 7. Part of a sentence may supply the place of a substantive, the adjective being put in the neuter gender: as, Audito regem Doroberniam proficisci—Eton Gram. Excepto quod non simul esses, cætera lætus—Hor.

Rule II. A personal verb agrees with its nominative, in number and person: as,

Ego lego, I read.

Tu scribis, Thou writest.

Præceptor docct, The master teacheth.

Note 1. Thus also Quid ego cesso-Plaut. Sol ruit, et montes umbrantur-Virg.

Note 2. Ego and nos are the first persons; tu and vos the second; and all nouns belong to the third.

Note 3. The nominative of pronouns, especially of the first and second person, is seldom expressed; as, Non fallam—Cic. Quod te dignum est, facies—Ter. But they are not omitted, when emphasis or a distinction of persons is intended: as, Tu dominus, tu vir, tu mihi frater eras—Ovid. Nos, nos, dico apertè, nos consules desumus—Cic. Ego reges ejeci, vos tyrannos introducitis—Auct. ad Herenn.

Note 4. Aiunt, dicunt, ferunt, sunt, narrant, tradunt, and the like, often have their nominative understood, when it is a person: as, Aiunt solere senes repuerascere—Plaut. Sunt quos juvat—Hor. homines is understood. For it is to be observed, that every nominative must have a finite verb, and every finite verb a nominative, expressed or understood; thus, in Di meliora!—Virg. dent may be understood; in Nam Polydorus ego—Virg. the verb sum.

Note 5. The nominative is sometimes found with the infinitive; in which case capit or caperunt is generally supposed to be understood: as, Invidere omnes mihi—Ter. Casar Æduos frumentum flagitare—Cas. But in some instances, other verbs may be supposed, according to the sense, to be understood; and in others, the infinitive seems to be of the same import as the imperfect of the indicative.

Note 6. The infinitive mood, or part of a sentence, may be the nominative of the third person; as, Non est mentiri meum—Ter. Incertum est quàm longa nostrum cujusque vita futura sit—Cic. E cœlo descendit, Nosce teipsum—Juv. The adverb or antient accusative, partim, sometimes appears as a nominative: thus, Sed eorum partim in pompA, partim in acie illustres esse voluerunt—Cic. But such constructions may be elliptical.

Note 7. In Latin, as in English, the person speaking, and the person addressed, are sometimes put in the plural, but in the former, perhaps, with some allusion to more than one: as, Nos dabimus quod ames—Ovid, Heroid. xvi. 85, i. e. ego dabo. Vos, O

Calliope, precor, adspirate canenti—Virg. Æn. ix. 525. There are instances in which the person speaking of himself uses, one while the singular and another the plural, in the same sentence.

Rule III. Substantive verbs, verbs of naming and gesture, have a nominative both before and after them, belonging to the same thing: as,

Ego sum discipulus,

Tu vocaris Joannes, Illa incedit regina, I am a scholar. You are named John. She walks [as] a queen.

Note 1. Thus also, Ira est furor--Hor. Ego incedo regina--Virg.

Note 2. This rule seems to arise from the nature of the figure Apposition, and may be thus expressed generally: Verbs which serve as $copul\alpha$, uniting the predicate with its subject, have a nominative before and after them.

Note 3. Substantive verbs are sum, fio, forem, and existo.— Verbs of naming comprehend such passives as appellor, dicor, vocor, nominor, nuncupor, feror, perhibeor, censeor, existimor, videor, habeor, creor, cognoscor, invenior, &c. Verbs of gesture or of posture are eo, incedo, venio, cubo, sto, jaceo, sedeo, evado, fugio, dormio, maneo, &c.

Note 4. The rule is not confined to these verbs only; for any verb may have a nominative before and after it, belonging to the same thing: as, Audivi hoc puer—Cic. Sapiens nil facit invitus—Cic.

Note 5. When a verb comes between two nominatives of different numbers, it usually agrees with the first, which may be supposed to be the subject of discourse: as, Ossa lapis fiunt—Ovid. It sometimes, however, takes the number of the last: as, Amantium iræ amoris integratio est—Ter. Pectus quoque robora fiunt—Ovid.

Note 6. If a vocative precede, such verbs or their participles are generally followed by the nominative: as, Esto, tu Cæsar, amicus—Mart. v. 20. But the poets often use another vocative: as, Quibus, Hector, ab oris Expectate venis—Virg. for expectatus. Lectule divitiis facte beate meis—Propert. Hence also, Macte virtute esto, for mactus.

RULE IV. The infinitive mood has an accusative before it: as,

Gaudeo te valere, I am glad that you are well.

Note 1. Thus also, Credunt se negligi—Ter. Miror te non scribere—Cic.

Note 2. The word that, either expressed or understood, coming between two English verbs, is the usual sign of this construction.

- Note 3. This accusative may be often turned into a nominative preceded by quod or ut, the infinitive being changed into the indicative or subjunctive: thus, Equidem scio jam filius quod amet meus—Ter. for filium meum amare. Volo vos bene sperare, or ut bene speretis.
- Note 4. Me, te, se, illum, are often understood: as, Sed reddere posse negabat—Virg. i. e. se posse.
- Note 5. Esse or fuisse is frequently omitted after participles: as, Sed de eâ re legatos missuros dixerunt—Nep. i. e. esse.
- Note 6. Sometimes the accusative and infinitive are omitted: as, Pollicitus sum suscepturum—Ter. for me suscepturum esse.
- Note 7. If the verb following that have no future participle, the expression may be varied thus: In spem veniebat, fore, uti pertinacià desisteret—Cæs. Nunquam putavi futurum, ut pater meus liberos odisset—Senec.
- Note 8. Care should be taken in using this construction not to render the meaning ambiguous, as in the famous answer of the oracle; Aio te, Æacida, Romanos vincere posse, in which it could not be ascertained from the mere words, which party was to prove victorious. The ambiguity might be prevented by changing the active into the passive voice. Further observations on quod, ut, and the infinitive mood, will occur under the Construction of the Infinitive Mood, and under Conjunctions.
- Rule V. Esse has the same case after it that it has before it: as,
- Petrus cupit esse vir doctus, Peter desires to be a learned man.
- Scio Petrum esse virum doctum, I know that Peter is a learned man.
- Mihi negligenti esse non licet, I am not allowed to be negligent.
- Note 1. Thus also, Qui volct esse pius—Lucan. Licct illis esse timidis—Liv.
- Note 2. This rule may be better expressed thus:—Substantive verbs, and most verbs neuter and passive, have the same case after them as before them.
- Note 3. When the leading verb governs the dative, such as licet, expedit, datur, concedo, the case after the infinitive may be either the dative, or the accusative: thus, Vobis necesse est fortibus esse viris—Liv. Da mihi fallere, da justo sanctoque videri—Hor. Expedit bonas esse vobis—Ter. Si civi Romano licet esse Gaditanum—Cic. It is evident that this construction and its varieties depend upon apposition; for if we say Licet illis esse timidis, timidis agrees with illis, the word to which it refers, and which it

qualifies. If we say Licet illis esse timidos, the accusative illos seems to be understood before esse, to which, in like manner, timidos refers. The former seems to be a Greek construction; the latter accords with the nature of the Latin language.

Note 4. After aio, refero, puto, nescio, sentio, and the like, with esse, the poets sometimes use the nominative instead of the accusative: as, Phaselus ille, quem videtis hospites, ait fuisse navium celerrimus—Catull. Retulit Ajax esse Jovis pronepos—Ovid. Uxor invicti Jovis esse nescis—Hor. Sometimes the infinitive is omitted: as, Sensit medios delapsus in hostes—Virg. for se delapsum esse. In these examples, it may be observed that the pronoun is not expressed before the infinitive.

Note 5. This rule extends only to the nominative, dative and accusative; on which account we cannot say Interest Ciceronis esse eloquentis, but eloquentem, in which eloquentem refers to a personal pronoun understood before esse.

Rule VI. The relative qui, quæ, quod, agrees with the antecedent, in gender, number, and person: as,

Amo virum qui pauca loquitur,

I love the man who speaks little.

Ego qui doceo,

I who teach.

Rule VII. If no nominative come between the relative and the verb, the relative shall be the nominative to the verb: as, Præceptor qui docet, The master who teacheth.

RULE VIII. But if a nominative come between the relative and the verb, the relative shall be of that case which the verb or noun following, or the preposition going before, uses to govern: as,

Deus quem colimus,
Cujus munere vivimus,
Cui nullus est similis,
A quo facta sunt omnia,
God whom we worship.
By whose gift we live.
To whom there is none like.
By whom all things were made.

Note 1. Thus also, Leve fit onus quod (onus) bene fertur--Ovid. Literæ, quas (literas) dedi--Cic.

Note 2. The antecedent is the substantive going before the relative, to which the latter refers, and which is again understood to the relative. The relative may, therefore, be considered as placed between two substantives (which are the same), whether expressed or understood; with the former of which it agrees in gender, number, and person; and with the latter, in gender, number, and case, as an adjective: thus, Diem dicunt, qua (die) ad ripam Rhodani omnes conveniant—Cæs. Erant omnino itinera duo, quibus (itineribus) domo exirc possent—Cæs.

Note 3. In the former note, there are two examples in which

the antecedent is repeated by Cæsar; but this is uncommon, as it is naturally implied in the relative: thus, Animum rege, qui, (scil. animus) nisi paret, imperat—Hor.

Note 4. Sometimes the substantive is omitted in the case which it strictly assumes as an antecedent, and expressed in that case which, though always understood, is generally suppressed; as, Urbem quam statuo vestra est-Virg. i. e. urbs quam (urbem) statuo. Eunuchum quem dedisti nobis, quas turbas dedit — Ter. i. e. Eunuchus, quem (eunuchum) dedisti, &c. This seems an imitation of Greek construction: as, 'Ακόσας δε ό 'Ηρώδης, εἶπεν, ον έγω ἀπεκεφαλίσα Ίωάννην, έτος έξι, i. e. έτος έξιν Ίωάννης, ον Ίωάννην έγω &c.—Mark vi. 16. The antecedent is omitted in two ways; 1st, by putting the substantive after the relative, and, consequently, in the same case with it: as, Populo ut placerent, quas fecisset fabulas -- Ter. 2dly, by putting, through the figure anastrophe, the substantive before the relative, but in such a manner that, in reality, it does only supply the place of the following word, as it is still in the same case as the relative: thus, Naucratem quem convenire volui, in navi non erat-Plaut.

Note 5. Sometimes both the antecedent and the subsequent substantive implied in the relative are omitted; as, Sunt quos juvat collegisse—Hor. i. e. sunt homines quos (homines) &c. Qualis esset natura montis, qui cognoscerent misit—Cæs.

Note 6. When the relative is placed between two nouns of different genders, it may agree with either; but its agreement with the antecedent is according to the analogy of Latin construction: thus, Herculi sacrificium fecit in loco, quem (locum) Pyram appellant—Liv. Unus erat toto naturæ vultus in orbe, Quem dixêre Chaos—Ovid. The agreement with the consequent is an imitation of Greek construction: thus, Animal providum et sagax quem vocamus hominem—Cic. Ad eum locum quæ appellatur Pharsalia applicuit—Cæs.

Note 7. If part of the sentence be the antecedent, the relative is of the neuter gender: as, Ego quoque unà perco, quod mihi est carius—Ter. i. e. quod negotium. Sometimes the pronoun id is elegantly placed before quod: thus, Catilina, id quod facillimum erat, omnium flagitiorum atque facinorum circum se catervas habebat—Sall.

. Note 8. Sometimes the antecedent is implied in the possessive: as, Omnes laudare fortunas meas, qui haberem—Ter. i. e. fortunas mei.

Note 9. The relative sometimes refers to the sense of the preceding words, or to some other substantive than that which goes before, with which last it sometimes differs in gender and number: as, Inter alia prodigia etiam carne pluit, quem imbrem ingens numerus avium intervolitando rapuisse fertur—Liv. i. e. pluit imbrem carne, quem (imbrem) &c. Daret ut catenis fatale monstrum, quæ generosius perire quærens &c.—Hor. in which quæ is feminine, not in regard to the antecedent monstrum, but to Cleopatra of whom the poet is speaking.

Note 10. Sometimes it refers to an antecedent of a different number from that which is expressed: as, Si tempus est ullum jure hominis necandi, quæ multa sunt—Cic. i. e. tempora. Interea servitia repudiabat, cujus initio ad eum magnæ copiæ concurrebant—Sall. i. e. servitii.

Note 11. Sometimes it agrees in gender with a word of similar import to the antecedent: as, Ego te, Euclio, de alia re rescivisse censui, quod ad me attinet—Plaut. in which quod seems to refer to negotium understood rather than to its real antecedent re. Delectu rebusque aliis divinis humanisque quæ (supply negotia) per ipsos agenda erant, perfectis—Liv.

Note 12. The relative is sometimes omitted: as, Est in secessu longo locus; insula portum Efficit objectu laterum—Virg. Est locus: Hesperiam Graii cognomine dicunt—Virg. in both which quem may be supplied after locus.

Note 13. Sometimes the word is added to the antecedent, which belongs to the clause of the relative; as, Cum venissent ad vada Volaterrana quæ nominantur—Cic. for vada quæ nominantur Volaterrana. As the original quotation stands, quæ nominantur may be translated, as they are named.

Note 14. The relative sometimes appears to agree in case with the antecedent: as, Cum scribas, et aliquid agas eorum quorum consuêsti—Cic. Non pro suâ, aut quorum simulat, injuriâ—Sall. Frag. This construction may be elliptical; and perhaps such examples are to be supplied thus: Aliquid agas corum, quorum (aliquid agere) consuêsti. Pro injuriâ eorum, pro quorum injuria simulat, scil. se arma cepisse. This is an imitation of Greek construction, and may arise from what is called attraction: thus, Kal ἐπίσευσαν τῆ γραφῆ, καὶ τῷ λόγῳ, ῷ ἐἰπεν ὁ Ἰησες—John ii. 22. Ἐν ταῖς ἐορταῖς, αῖς ἡγομεν—Aristoph. In these the relative is said to be attracted, by the antecedent, into its case.

Note 15. Sometimes the relative, if once expressed, is afterwards omitted, and in such a manner that, if supplied, its case would be different: as, Quibus nec quæstus est, nec didicêre artem ullam—Plaut. instead of nec qui didicêre.

Note 16. Words of relative quantity and quality, as, quotus, quantus, qualis, are often construed as the relative: thus, Facies, qualem decet esse sororum—Ovid. Tantæ multitudinis, quantam capit urbs nostra, concursus est ad me factus—Cic. But when relatives of this description and their redditives (i. e. the adjectives which correspond to them) refer to different substantives, the former agree with the first, and the latter with the second substantive, as adjectives: thus, Dixi de te quæ potui, tantâ contentione, quantum est forum—Cic. Among the poets, qualis is sometimes made to agree in gender with the former substantive: as, Sed incitat me pectus et manmæ putres, Equina quales ubera—Hor. for qualia sunt ubera. The same poet uses the accusative for the ablative: as Occurrunt animæ, quales neque candidiores Terra tulit; for qualibus. The word negotium is sometimes understood: as, Tale

tuum carmen nobis, quale sopor fessis in gramine—Virg. Either the relative or its redditive is sometimes omitted: as, Quale manus addunt ebori decus—Virg. for tale decus, quale. Qui tanti talem genuere parentes—Virg. i. e. tanti, quanta tu Dido; talem item, qualem te conspicimus.

Note 17. The first two rules in regard to the relative qui, depend upon the first and second concords; and the third rule, upon the rules for the government of nouns, verbs, and prepositions. It always agrees in gender and number with the antecedent; and when the antecedent and consequent happen to be in the same case, it then agrees in case also. Its case depends always upon that of the consequent, which it implies; and instead of which it generally stands alone.

Note 18. The clause of the antecedent is sometimes found after that of the relative: as, Qui pauperes sunt, iis antiquior officio est pecunia—Cic.

RULE IX. Two or more substantives singular, coupled together by a conjunction [et, ac, atque, &c.], generally have a verb, adjective, or relative plural: as,

Petrus et Joannes, qui sunt docti, Peter and John, who are learned.

- Note 1. Thus also, Lupus et agnus compulsi—Phædr. Furor iraque mentem præcipitant—Virg. Herodotus Thucydidesque, quorum ætas in eorum tempora incidit—Cic.
 - Note 2. This rule arises from the figure syllepsis.
- Note 3. It refers not only to affirmative copulatives, but may be extended to those also which are negative, and to the disjunctive conjunctions aut, vel, ve, seu, sive, in those cases where the attribute is either affirmed or denied in regard to the several subjects: as, Quod in decenviris neque Cæsar, neque ego habiti essemus—Cic. Veluti cum prætor, aut præses, aut proconsul, in balneum, vel in theatrum eant—Justinian. Inst.
- Note 4. A singular nominative followed by an ablative governed by cum sometimes takes a plural verb or adjective: as, Juba cum Labieno capti in potestatem Cæsaris venissent—Hirt. B. Afr. Remo cum fratre Quirinus Jura dabunt—Virg. Pharnabazus cum Apollonide et Athenagora vincti traduntur—Curt.
- Note 5. The conjunction is sometimes omitted, by the figure asyndeton: as, Dum ætas, metus, magister prohibebant—Ter.
- Note 6. Sometimes two adjectives in the singular belong to a plural substantive: as, Maria Tyrrhenum atque Adriaticum—Liv.
- Note 7. Frequently an adjective or verb singular is joined by the figure zeugma to two or more nouns coupled together: as, Mare rubrum et totus orientis oceanus refertus est silvis—Plin.

Note 8. If the singular nominatives be of different persons, the plural verb will agree with the more worthy person, that is, with the first in preference to the second, and with the second rather than with the third: as, Si tu et Tullia, lux nostra, valetis, ego et suavissimus Cicero valemus—Cic. The same rule is observed, if either substantive, or both, be plural; as, Si nos duces, vosque milites strenuo suo quisque officio fungamur. Thus also Errâstis, Rulle, vehementer et tu, et nonnulli collegæ tui—Cic. But in many instances the person next to the verb, although it may be the more unworthy, is preferred.

Note 9. In substantives denoting living beings, the masculine gender is preferred to the feminine: as, Pater mihi et mater mortui sunt—Ter. It is not ascertained among grammarians, whether or not the feminine gender ought to be preferred to the neuter; whether we should say Lucretia et ejus mancipium fuerunt castæ, or casta. Vossius, in his larger grammar, the authors of the Port Royal grammar, and Ursinus, seem to think the feminine preferable. But the same Vossius (in his less grammar'), Linacer, and Alvarez, prefer the neuter to the feminine. It may sometimes happen that one of the nouns does not signify persons expressly, but by implication; as when the name of a place is put for the inhabitants: thus, Athenarum et Cratippi; ad quos-Cic. So likewise when one of them is a collective, persons being signified: Quadraginta millia peditum, duo millia septingenti equites, et tanta prope civium sociorumque pars cæsi dicuntur-Liv. But we also find Tria millia quadringenti cæsa-Liv.

Note 10. When the substantives denote things without life, the adjective is generally neuter: as, Divitiæ, decus et gloria in oculis sita sunt-Sall. in which negotia seems to be understood. It is generally understood that if any one of the substantives denote a thing inanimate, the adjective may be neuter: as, Serpens, sitis, ardor, arenæ, Dulcia virtuti-Lucan. Sometimes in inanimate things, regard is paid to the simple construction, or the more worthy gender: as, Grammatice quondam ac Musice junctæ fuerunt-Quinct. Seriores supra dictis narcissus et lilium—Plin. When the substantives signify irrational animals or plants, we find the adjective or relative agreeing with the general word understood: thus, Expertes rationis sunt equi, boves, reliquæ pecudes, apes, quarum (perhaps bestiarum) opere efficitur aliquid ad hominum usum et vitam—Cic. vitibus olivetisque dicam, quarum (perhaps arborum) fructus nihil omnino ad bestias pertinent--Cic. In this last example, it may perhaps be, that the feminine is preferred to the neuter; or olivetis

¹ His words there are, "Utrum et feminiuum dignius est neutro? Ita quidem plerisque videtur, idque propter illud Lucani; Leges et plebiscita coactæ. Sed istoc μοναδικόν videtur, sive singulare; ut adversus aliorum scriptorum consuetudinem exunde non debeat judicium ferri." But some consider coactæ as a mistake for coacta; others divide plebiscita into plebis scita, and construe coactæ with plebis.

may be used instead of the feminine olivis; and, indeed, in the former, quarum may refer to apes, the nearest substantive.

Note 11. The more worthy person is generally placed first: as, Ego et tu. Livy furnishes an example to the contrary; Pater et ego, fratresque mei, pro vobis arma tulimus. The precedence, here, may be intended as a mark of deference and distinction.

Note 12. The verb or adjective frequently agrees, by the figure zeugma, in person, gender, or number, with the nearest substantive: as, Et ego et Cicero meus flagitabit -- Cic. Salus, liberi, fama, fortunæ, sunt carissimæ--Cic. Sociis et rege recepto--Virg. When cum intervenes between two nouns, regard is still paid to worthiness of gender: as, Ilia cum Lauso de Numitore sati-Ovid. The verb takes the person of the nominative: as, Tu quoque cum Druso præmia feres-Ovid. When singular substantives are joined together, especially those signifying things without life, the best authors often use a verb singular: as, Virtus, et honestas, et pudor cogebat—Cic. This is the more common, when the different words are of similar signification; and when this is the case, the adjective or relative generally agrees with the nearest: as, Mutii janua et vestibulum, quod maxime celebratur-Cic. Turner condemns Lily's Imperium et dignitas quæ petiisti, which should be, he says, quam petiisti; but, as Ruddiman observes, Cicero himself seems in one instance to write in a similar manner. Collective nouns, as, populus, gens, turba, manus, &c.1, and certain partitives, as, quisque, uterque, &c., are frequently joined to a verb, adjective or relative, plural; and the adjective or relative, instead of taking the gender of the collective expressed, often agrees with a word which the sense suggests to the mind: as, Multitudo convenerant - Cæs. Magna pars vulnerati aut occisi sunt-Sall. Intimus quisque libertorum vincti abreptique-Tacit. Familia quorum, &c. - Sall. Such constructions arise from the figure synthesis, or, as it may, perhaps, with greater propriety be named, synesis.

A collective noun may be joined with a verb either of the singular or of the plural number: as, Quærit pars semina flammæ-Virg. Pars in frusta secant-Virg. Joined with a singular verb, it generally expresses many considered as one aggregate; but, when joined with a plural verb, it signifies many separately or individually. Hence, if an adjective or participle be subjoined to the verb, when the latter is of the singular number, the former will agree both in gender and number with the collective noun: as, Circiter pars quarta erat militaribus armis instructa-Sall .: since, in this case, they all agree with the term of universality, and are understood to the special or individual terms: but, if the verb be plural, the adjective or participle will be plural also, and of the same gender as the individuals constituting the collective noun; as, Pars erant cæsi. Complerant litora -- pars et certare parati-Virg. Sometimes, however, though rarely, the adjective is thus used in the singular as, Pars, arduus altis Pulverulentus equis furit-Virg. Æn. vii. 624, for ardui, pulverulenti furunt. Proper names and appellatives also take the gender of the individuals implied: as, Latium, Copuaque ogro multati-Liv. viii. 11, for Latini et Campani. Capita conjurationis virgis cæsi-Liv. x. 1, for duces or principes, as we say, in English, the heads.

Rule X. One substantive agrees with another signifying the same thing, in case: as,

Cicero Orator. Cicero the Orator. Urbs Edinburgum. Filius deliciæ matris suæ,

The city Edinburgh. A son the darling of his mother.

- Note 1. That is, when two nouns come together denoting the same person or thing, the one explaining or describing the other. they are put in the same case: as, Justitia virtus-Cic. Opes irritamenta malorum-Ovid.
- Note 2. This is named apposition, and is not considered by some grammarians as a concord. I consider it, however, as a primary concord, and founded on the abstract principle, that words agreeing in meaning should agree by grammatical concord'.
- Note 3. It is not necessary that the nouns agree in gender, number, or person; as, Magnum pauperies opprobrium-Hor. Alexin delicias domini-Virg. Ego homuncio hoc non facerem?-Ter. -- In all such constructions there seems to be an ellipsis of the antient ens, or of qui est, qui vocatur, or the like.
- Note 4. The substantive descriptive of two or more singular substantives joined together, is made plural: as, Cn. Domitio, C. Sosio consulibus--Nep. Eupolis, atque Cratinus, Aristophanesque poëtæ-Hor. Likewise, when the nouns are connected by cum: as, Cottam cum Titurio Sabino legatos ibi amisimus-Flor. iii. 10. 8. But in some editions legato is read: the former reading, however, seems to be preferred.

Note 5. When a plural appellative is used as descriptive of two or more proper names of different genders, it must be of the more worthy gender: as, Ad Ptolemæum Cleopatramque reges legati missi-Liv., in which reges is equivalent to regem et reginam. In the same manner socer, filius, and frater are used, implying like-

wise socrus, filia, and soror.

Note 6. When one of the substantives is animate, the adjective and verb agree with it: as, Cum duo fulmina nostri imperii subitò in Hispania, Cn. et P. Scipiones, extincti occidissent - Cic. In many instances the sense will determine the regimen. If the nouns are inanimate, it agrees with the last: as, Fama malum, quo non aliud velocius ullum--Virg. Here, likewise, the agreement of quo with malum is determined by the sense. The rule seems to be that, in this case, the adjective and verb shall agree with the more general noun: as, Flumen est Arar, quod in Rhodanum influit-Cæs. Co-

¹ The antients named this construction Epexegesis or declaratio, because the preceding substantive is explained by the following. Grammarians state its object to be threefold. 1. To limit a general term; as, arbor laurus. 2. To remove ambiguity; as, Taurus mons, lupus piscis. 3. To designate some property; as, Socrates vir sapientissimus.

rioli oppidum captum-Liv.--Cæsar has made the adjective agree with the proper name in Flumine Rheno qui agrum Helvetium a Germanis dividit, and in other parts.

Note 7. Sometimes the latter substantive is put into the genitive: as, Fons Timavi-Virg. Arbor fici—Cic. Et lapathi brevis herba—Hor.

Note 8. A sentence or clause may supply the place of one of the substantives: as, Cogiset oratorem institui, rem arduam—Quinct.

Note 9. If the latter substantive be susceptible of a change in termination, to express a difference of gender, it must agree with the former in gender and number: as, Populum late regem—Virg. for regnantem. Regina pecunia—Hor. for regnans. But to epicænes, and neuters, the masculine is generally joined: as, Aquila rex avium. Tempus magister multorum. Virgil speaks of reges et ductores apum, not reginas et ductrices.

Note 10. To the preceding four concords some add a fifth, that of the Responsive, generally agreeing in case with its Interrogative. But this depends entirely upon the nature of the figure ellipsis; for if we say Quis herus est tibi? Amphitruo—Ter. to this last nominative are understood the words est herus mihi.—When words of different construction are used, the Responsive and Interrogative disagree: as, Cujum pecus? an Melibæi? Non, verum Ægonis—Virg. Cujus est liber? meus, not mei. Cuja interest? Regis. But even in some of these, if the elliptical words be supplied, the constructions do only seem to disagree: thus, if we say Cujus interest? and reply mea, tua, &c. the full sentence may be, Cujus negotia interest, or Inter cujus negotia est? Mea negotia interest.

II. OF GOVERNMENT.

- 1. Of Nouns.
- 2. Of Verbs.
- 3. Of Words indeclinable.

THE GOVERNMENT OF NOUNS.

OF SUBSTANTIVES.

RULE XI. One substantive governs another signifying a different thing, in the genitive: as,

Amor Dei,
Lex natura,
The love of God.
The law of nature.

- Note 1. That is, when two substantives come together, signifying different things; or in which the latter limits or defines the general signification of the former, and expresses some particular relation belonging to it, it must be put into the genitive: as, Amor nummi—Juv. Initium est salutis notitia peccati—Senec.
- Note 2. The substantive in Latin, which is to be put into the genitive, is that which corresponds with the English word following of, or which ends in 's.
- Note 3. The governing substantive is sometimes omitted: as, Ubi ad Dianæ veneris—Ter. i. e. templum or ædem.
- Note 4. The latter substantive is sometimes understood: as, Tritici decies centum millia, et hordei quingenta, indicantes se ad mare devecta habere—Liv. i. e. modiûm.
- Note 5. The pronouns hujus, ejus, illius, cujus, &c. are used as substantives, the word with which they agree being generally understood: as, Liber ejus. Libri eorum. Supply hominis and hominum. The personal pronouns, having the nature of nouns, are governed by a noun: as Languet desiderio tui.
- Note 6. The genitive may have either an active or a passive signification: thus, in Nec sese Æneæ jactavit vulnere quisquam—Virg. vulnere Æneæ denotes the wound which Æneas had received; Et vulnere tardus Ulyssi—Virg. refers to the wound which Ulysses had given.
- Note 7. The substantive governed may govern another signifying a different thing: as, Fratris hie filius erat regis—Liv.
- Note 8. Sometimes two genitives depend upon the same governing substantive: as, Hujus civitatis est longe amplissima auctoritas omnis oræ maritimæ regionum earum—Cæs. Here, indeed, there are three genitives, but the third is governed by the second.
- Note 9. Sometimes the word governing and the word governed exchange cases: as, Sex dies ad cam rem conficiendam spatii postulant—Cæs. i. e. spatium sex dierum.
- Note 10. The genitive, signifying possession, is often changed into an adjective: as, Domus paterna—Cic. for Domus patris.
- Note 11. The genitive is sometimes changed into the dative: as, Fratri ædes fient perviæ—Ter. for fratris. Or, into an accusative or ablative with a preposition: as, Odium erga Romanos—Nep. Cura de salute patriæ—Cic. If the former substantive be derived from a neuter verb, the latter often follows the construction of that verb: as, Colloquia cum amicis—Cic. as well as Colloquia amicorum—Cic. Sibi successorem—Suet. Justitia est obtemperatio scriptis legibus institutisque populorum—Cic. In old Latinity especially, the dative and accusative are sometimes found after a substantive derived from an active verb: as, Traditio alteri—Cic. Quid istum tibi tactio est—Plaut.—In such phrases as Domum reditionis spe sublatå—Cæs. in which the case of domus

is erroneously ascribed by some grammarians to the government of *reditio*; the accusative, or the ablative, depends entirely upon the nature of *domus*, which is governed by a preposition generally understood.

Note 12. Pars is omitted after such adjectives as primus, medius, ultimus, extremus, infimus, imus, summus, supremus, reliquus, cæterus; thus Media nox—Cæs. signifies the middle (part of the) night. In summo monte, On the top (or highest part) of the hill. In such examples the adjective must agree with the substantive.

[Certain observations on the nature and construction of pronouns, usually referred to this rule, will be found in Etymology.]

RULE XII. If the latter substantive have an adjective of praise or dispraise joined with it, it may be put in the genitive or ablative: as,

Puer probæ indolis, vel A boy of a good disposition.

- Note 1. That is, when the second substantive expresses a quality belonging to the first, having also an adjective joined to it, expressing some degree, accident, or property belonging to that quality, it may be put in the genitive or ablative: as, Ingenui vultus puer—Juv. Es nullâ fide—Cic. Magno pondere saxum—Virg. Mulier ætate integrâ—Ter.
- Note 2. The genitive seems to depend upon the former substantive taken possessively; and the ablative is governed by some preposition generally understood, but sometimes also expressed: as, Amicus cum magnā fide—Plaut. Trin. iv. 4. 4.
- Note 3. Prose writers use the ablative more frequently than the genitive, especially after a substantive verb.
- Note 4. In such instances as the following, the genitive is the more common: Magni formica laboris—Hor. Testimonium nullius momenti—Cic. Nulli (nullius) consilii sum—Ter. Rosa jucundi odoris—Plin.
- Note 5. In such as the following, the ablative only is used: Bono animo es—Ter. Quanto fuerim dolore—Cic. Mira sum alacritate ad litigandum—Cic. Credens se minore invidiá fore—Nep.
- Note 6. Sometimes both constructions are found in the same sentence: as, Lentulum, eximiâ spe, summæ virtutis, adolescentem fac erudias—Cic.
- Note 7. Sometimes the adjective agrees with the former substantive, or the subject of discourse, and the latter substantive is put in the ablative: as, Vir gravitate et prudentia præstans—Cic. Vir præstantis ingenii, præstanti ingenio, præstans ingenio, and

(poetically) præstans ingenii, are all found. Sometimes the poets use an accusative: as, Os humerosque similis deo—Virg. Vultum dejectus—Stat. Such accusatives are governed by the preposition secundum or quod ad understood, and are referred to the figure synecdoche. Integer vitæ—Hor. Præstans animi—Virg. and the like, may perhaps be referred to another rule.

Note 8. In like manner, neuter and passive verbs are construed with the ablative: as, Et corde et genibus tremit—Hor. Lævo brachio vulneratur—Liv. And by the poets with an accusative: as, Expleri mentem nequit—Virg. Such cases are governed by a preposition understood.

Note 9. The former substantive is sometimes understood: as, Vulgus est ingenio mobili—Sall. Populus, or some similar word, is understood.

Note 10. The latter substantive must denote some part or property of the former; otherwise its government does not depend upon the present rule: hence such phrases as Pulchrā prole parentem—Virg. Rex gelidæ oræ—Hor. Pater optimorum liberorum, and the like, are excluded from it. I believe, it may be generally observed, that when in English the analytical or Norman form of the genitive (i. e. with of) is convertible into the simple or Saxon form (with 's), the Latin genitive is to be referred to the preceding rule: thus, "The father of the fine children," which is equivalent to "The fine children's father." But when, consistently with sense and with general usage, this cannot be done, the genitive belongs to the present rule: as, "A man of great virtue," which is not convertible into "great virtue's man."

It has been observed, that when a person is distinguished by any rank, quality, or character; the noun expressing it is used in the genitive, to denote the source of that distinction; but that the ablative is used, when the quality, rank, or character is represented, not as the source of distinction, but as the instrument

or medium by which the subject is distinguished.

RULE XIII. An adjective in the neuter gender, without a substantive expressed, is followed by a genitive: as,

Multum pecuniæ, Much money. Quid rei? What is the matter?

Note 1. That is, adjectives in the neuter gender, used as substantives, govern the genitive: as. Paululum pecuniæ—Ter. Hoc noctis—Cic. Id negotii—Ter. Id miseriarum—Ter. 1

Note 2. The adjectives thus used are generally such as signify quantity: as, multum, plus, plurimum, tantum, quantum, minus,

¹ Or, an adjective in the neuter gender, expressive of quantity, or partitively used, governs, in the genitive case, the substantive with which, strictly, it should agree: thus we say Multa pecunia: but if we use multum, we must say Multum pecuniæ. Thus also we say Angusta viarum for Angustæ viæ.

minimum; also id, quid, hoc, aliquid, quidquam; to which may be added summum, ultimum, extremum, dimidium, and medium: as, Summum montis-Ovid. Animæ dimidium-Hor. To these may be added a great number of plural neuters: as, Angusta viarum, opaca locorum, &c.-Virg. Incerta fortunæ, antiqua fæderum, extrema periculorum-Liv. And sometimes other singular neuters: as, Lubricum juventa-Tac. Sub obscurum noctis-Virg. Ex adverso cœli-Virg.

Note 3. It is observed that guod, alignod, guoddam, always agree with their substantives; and that quid and plus are always followed by a genitive.

Note 4. Nihil, hoc, id, illud, istud, quid, aliquid, quidquam, elegantly admit the genitive of neuter adjectives of the second declension: as, Nihil sinceri-Cic. Quid reliqui est?-Ter. This seldom happens with adjectives of the third declension; and never with those that end in is, e. Aliud is joined with nihil, and never the genitive, according to this rule,

Note 5. Negotium, tempus, locum, spatium, or the like, are understood to these adjectives, and are the really governing words, according to Rule XI.

RULE XIII. 1 Opus and usus, denoting necessity, convenience, or expediency, are followed by the dative of the object to which the thing is necessary, and the ablative of the thing wanted: as.

opus est—Cic. authority.

Nunc viribus usus (est)

Now you have need of strength.

Note 1. They are said sometimes to govern the genitive; but, when this is the case, they generally appear to be taken in their literal sense. The following are adduced as examples of their governing a genitive, according to the sense mentioned in the rule: Sed etiam si nosse, quid quisque senserit, volet, lectionis opus est-Quinct. Inst. xii. 3. Alii offerunt se, si quò usus operæ sit-Liv. xxvi. 9.

Note 2. Opus is sometimes used like the adjective necessarius, but as an aptote: as, Dux nobis et autor opus est-Cic.

Note 3. Opus is elegantly followed by the ablative of perfect participles, the substantive being either expressed or omitted: as, Priusquam incipias, consulto; et ubi consulueris, mature facto opus est-Sall. Opus fuit Hirtio convento--Cic. Thus also, Dictu opus est-Ter. And Facto est usus-Plaut.

Opus and usus, denoting necessity, are usually noticed under adjectives of want. They are here made the subject of a separate rule, which, for obvious reasons, is numbered as the preceding.

Note 4. Opus is sometimes followed by an accusative: as, Puero opus est cibum—Plaut. Diomedes mentions that the antients said Opus est mihi hanc rem; but it is probable, that these accusatives are governed by some infinitive; such as habere, dicere, facere. The following has been adduced as an instance in which usus governs an accusative; Ad cam rem usus est hominem astutum, doctum—Plaut.

Note 5. It is followed by the infinitive, or the subjunctive with ut: as, Quod opus sit sciri—Cic. Opus est, agram ut te adsimules—Plaut.

Note 6. The word governed by it is often omitted: as, Si opus sit, accurras—Cic. in which the word accurrere may supply the place of the ablative of the thing wanted, or may be considered as the nominative to sit, opus being then reckoned equivalent to necessarium.

Note 7. The ablative after these words seems to be governed by the preposition in. Utor formerly governed an accusative, as well as an ablative; and as there are not wanting instances to prove that verbal nouns sometimes governed the case of their verbs, this consideration may, perhaps, be satisfactory to some, in regard to the origin of the government of usus.

OF ADJECTIVES.

RULE XIV. Verbal adjectives, or such as signify an affection of the mind, require the genitive: as,

Avidus gloriæ,
Ignarus fraudis,
Memor beneficiorum,

Mindful of favours.

Note 1. Or, verbal adjectives, by which are meant verbals in x, osus, and idus, with participials in ns; and adjectives signifying an affection of the mind, by which are meant those which denote desire or disdain, knowledge or ignorance, innocence or guilt, or the like, require the genitive: as, Timidus deorum—Ovid. Imperitus rerum—Ter. Fraterni sanguinis insons—Ovid.

To this rule belong

1st. Verbals in ax, and participials in ns: as capax, edax, fugax, pervicax, tenax, &c., amans, appetens, cupiens, negligens, metuens, sciens, &c.: as, Tempus edax rerum—Ovid. Alieni appetens—Sall. To these may be added certain participials in us; as consultus, doctus, expertus, inexpertus, insuetus, insolitus: as, Juris consultus—Cic.

2dly. Adjectives denoting affection: as,

1. Desire and disdain; cupidus, avarus, avidus, fastidiosus, curiosus, studiosus, incuriosus, &c. with many other words belonging to verbals in idus and osus: as, Laudis avidi—Sall. Literarum fastidiosus—Cic.

2. Knowledge and ignorance; peritus, gnarus, prudens, callidus, docilis, certus, memor, &c.; ignarus, improvidus, imprudens, insolitus, &c.: as, Conscia mens recti-Hor. Nescia mens fati-Virg.

3. Innocence and guilt; innocens, innoxius, insons, &c., noxius, reus, suspectus, compertus, &c. as, Consilii innoxius-Curt. Reus

avaritie-Cic.

4. To the foregoing may be added a vast multitude of other adjectives, of which Johnson and Ruddiman have given lists. But the greater part of these belong to the above-mentioned classes, and some may be referred to other rules; such are the following.

Abjection animi—Apul. or Liv. Absonum fidei-Liv. (perh. dat.) Confusus animi-Liv. Abstemius vini—Auson. Acer militiæ—Tac. Admirandus frugalitatis—Senec. Spesanimi credula mutui-Hor. Adversa domuum. Æger animi—Liv. Æmulus ingenii—Sil. Æquales ævi—Sil. Æquus absentium—Tac. Alienum dignitatis. Alternus animæ—Sil. Ambiguus pudoris—Tac. Amens animi—Virg. Anhelus laboris—Sil. Anxius furti - Ov. Ardens animi. Argutus facinorum—Plaut. Assuetus tumultus—Liv. Atrox odii—Tac. Attonitus serpentis—Sil. Audax ingenii—Stat. Angustior animi—Apul. Aversus animi-Tac. Benignus vini—Hor. Bibulus Falerni—Hor. Blandus precum—Stat. Bonus fati. Cæcus animi—Quinct. Callidus temporum—Tac. Captus animi—Tac. Catus legum—Auson. Celer nandi-Sil. Certus destinationis—Tac. Clamosus undæ. Clarissimus disciplinæ—Paterc. Commune omnium. Compos animi—Ter. voti.—Liv. Expertus belli—Virg. Confidens animi—Sucton.

Confirmatus animi - Apul. Conterminus jugi. Credulus adversi - Sil. Cumulatissimus scelerum— Damnandus facti-Sil. Deformis leti—Sil. Degener artis patriæ—Ovid. Despectus tædæ. Devius æqui—Sil. Discolor lanæ. Discors patris-Vell. Pat. ---- al. patri. Disertus leporum—Catul. Dispar sortis—Sil. Diversus morum—Tac. Ditior animi—Stat. Dissolüenda tristitiæ pectora— Divina futuri—Hor. Docilis modorum-Hor. Doctus virgæ—Sil. Dubius animi — Virg. Dulcissimus fandi—Gell. Durus oris—Liv. Durior oris—Ovid. Effusissimus munificentiæ—Pa-Egregius animi—Virg. Enuntiativi corporum—Senec. Erectus animi—Sil. Exactus morum—Ovid. Exiguus animi—Claudian. Eximius animi—Stat. Exosa hujus vitæ—Boët.

Expletus animi — Apul.

Exsors culpæ—Liv. Exsul patriæ—Hor. Externatus animi—Apul. Extorris regni-Stat. Exutus formæ—Sil. Facilis frugum—Claudian. Fallax amicitiæ—Tac. Falsus animi-Ter. Fatigatus spei—Apul. Felix cerebri-Hor. Ferox animi—Tac. Fervidus ingenii - Sil. Fessus rerum — Virg. Festinus animi - Apul. Fidens animi-Virg. Fidissima tui - Virg. Firmatus animi — Sall. Firmus propositi—Paterc. ---- al. proposito. Flavus comarum—Sil. Floridior ævi-Sil. Fluxa morum—Sil. Fætæ novales Martis—Claud. Formidolosior hostium- Tac. Fortunatus laborum—Virg. Fractus animi, opum. Frequens silvæ mons—Tac. Frustratus spei—Gel. Fugitivus regni—Flor. Furens animi — Virg. Gaudens alti-Stat. Gravis morum—Claudian. Gravidam Amathunta metalli-Illex animi—Apul. Impavidus somni—Sil. Impiger militiæ—Tac. (perhaps the dative.) Impos animi — Plaut. Improba connubii - Stat. Incautus futuri—Hor. Indecora formæ fæmina— Tac. Indocilis pacis—Sil. Inexplebilis virtutis—Liv. Infelix animi-Virg. Infirmus corporis—Apul. Ingens animi-Tac. Inglorius militiæ—Tac. Ingratus salutis—Virg. Innoxius consilii - Curt.

Insanus animi - Apul. Insatiabilis rerum-Senec. Insolens infamiæ—Cic. Insolitus servitii - Sall. Frag. Insuetus laboris—Cæs. Integer animi, vitæ-Hor. Interrita leti mens—Ovid. Intrepidus ferri - Claud. Invictus laboris - Tac. Invidus laudis—Cic. Irritus incepti - Sil. Lætus laboris - Virg. Lapsus animi-Plaut, al. Lassus animi. Lassus laboris, maris, militiæ-Hor.Laudandus laborum—Sil. Lentus cæpti—Sil. Levis opum - Sil. Liber laborum—Hor. Liberalis pecuniæ—Sall. Lugendus formæ—Sil. Macte animi—Mart. Madidus roris—Apul. Manifestus criminis— Tac. Maturus ævi— Virg. Maximus ævi—Sil. Medius pacis et belli—Hor. Melior fati—Sil. Miser animi—Plant. Modicus pecuniæ—Tac. Mollior sui — Apul. Munificus auri—Claudian. Mutabile mentis genus—Sil. Mutatus animi - Apul. Nimius imperii—Liv. Nobilis fandi—Auson. Notus fugarum—Sil. Novus doloris—Sil. —al. dolori. Nudus arboris—Ovid. Occultus odii—Tac. Onusta remigum—Hirt. Afr. Optimus militiæ-Sil. Otiosi studiorum—Plin. Pares ætatis mentisque—Sil. Pavidus offensionum—Tac. Pauper aquæ—Hor. Perfida pacti gens - Sil.

Periclitabundus sui-Apul. Perinfames disciplinæ—Apul. Pertinax docendi—Apul. Pervicax iræ—Tac. Piger pericli-Sil. Potens lyræ-Hor. Præceps animi — Virg. Præcipuus virtutis--Apul. Præclarus fidei — Tac. Præstans animi—Virg. Pravus fidei -- Sil. Procax otii - Tac. Profugus regni—Tac. Promptus belli—Tac. Properus oblatæ occasionis— Propriæ deorum voluptates. Prospera frugum-Hor. Pulcherrimus iræ—Sil. Purus sceleris—Hor. Recreatus animi—-Apul. Rectus judicii—Senec. Resides bellorum—Stat. Sanus mentis-Plaut. Satiatus cædis-Ovid. Saucius famæ—Apul. Scitus vadorum-Hor. Secors rerum—Ter. Secreta teporis corpora—Lucr. Segnis occasionum--Tac. Seri studiorum--Hor. Similis tui—Plaut. Sinister fidei—Sil. Solers operum-Sil. ---- lyræ--Hor. Solliciti rerum.

Solutus operum--Hor. Spernendus morum—Tac. Spreta vigoris--Sil. Strenuus militiæ—Tac. Stupentes animi—Liv. Summus severitatis—Tac. Superior sui—Tac. Superstes bellorum. Surdus veritatis—Col. Suspensus animi—Apul. Tantus animi—Apul. Tardus fugæ-V. Flac. Tenella animi—Apul. Tenuis opum—Sil. Territus animi -Liv. Timidus deorum—Ovid. Trepidi rerum-Liv. Truncus pedum—Virg. Turbatus animi-Sil. Turbidus animi—Tac. Vafer juris--Ovid. Vagus animi—Catul. Validus animi—Tac. Vanus veri—Virg. Vecors animi—Apul. Venerandus senectæ—Sil. Versus animi-Tac. Versutus ingenii—Plin. Vetus regnandi-Tac. Victus animi—Virg. Vigil armenti—Sil. Viridissimus iræ--Sil. Unicus rerum fessarum—Sil. Utilis medendi radix—Ovid. Heroid. v. 147. al. medenti.

But of these many are with much more propriety referred to other rules: such as, abstemius, compos, impos, liber, macte, modicus, potens, impotens, purus; also cumulatus, expletus, exsors, exsul, extorris, fietus, frequens, gravidus, munificus, and the like, which are usually referred to adjectives of plenty or want.

Note 2. Many of the adjectives enumerated in the previous part of this rule are construed variously: as, Patiens frigus, One suffering cold at this moment. Patiens frigoris, A person capable of bearing cold. Doctus grammatica, One skilled in grammar. Doctus grammaticam, One that has been taught grammar; which he may perhaps have forgotten. Doctus Latinis literis, Learned in.

Græcarum literarum doctus-Cic.

Avidior ad rem-Ter. Avidus in pecuniis locupletium-Cic. Vino cupida-Plaut. Callidus natura-Ovid. Ad fraudem callidus-Cic. Prudens consilio-Justin. Jurisconsultus and jureconsultus-Cic. Homines labore assiduo et quotidiano assueti-Čic. Assuetus prædæ miles-Liv. In omnia familiaria jura assuetus-Liv. Insuetus laboris-Cæs. Insuetus moribus Romanis-Liv. Corpora insueta ad onera portanda-Cæs. Insolitus rerum-Sall., ad laborem-Cæs.-Anxius gloria-Liv. Sollicitus de re-Cic. Diligens in, ad, de-Cic. Securus de bello-Liv. Negligens in aliquem-Cic., in amicis eligendis-Cic. Reus magnis criminibus-Cic. Super scelere suspectus-Sall. Regni crimine insons-Liv. - Most of those adjectives contained in the preceding list are construed, especially by prose writers, in the ablative, or otherwise: as, Præstans ingenio -- Cic. Cultu modicus -- Tac. Æger pedibus -- Sall. Credulus alicui -Virg. Profugi ab Thebis - Liv. - Amulus, certus, incertus, dubius, ambiguus, conscius, manifestus, suspectus, noxius, compertus, are frequently construed with the dative, but in a different sense. --- Adversus, æqualis, affinis, alienus, blandus, communis, conterminus, contrarius, credulus, dispar, dissimilis, fidus, finitimus, par, proprius, similis, superstes, and some others, are oftener construed with the dative than the genitive. Superior takes generally the ablative. Alienus takes frequently the ablative with a or ab: as, Humani nihil a me alienum puto-Ter. But these and innumerable other varieties may be safely left to observation.

Note 3. Grammarians differ a little about the nature of this government. It may, however, be observed, that, in many instances, the adjectives are used substantively: thus, that Amans virtutis is the same as Amator virtutis. Other adjectives are supposed to be followed by a genitive governed by such words as in re, in causa, in negotio, understood: as, Non anxius causa sui. Reus gratia furti.

RULE XV. Partitives, and words placed partitively, comparatives, superlatives, interrogatives, and some numerals, govern the genitive plural : as,

Aliquis philosophorum, Senior fratrum,

Doctissimus Romanorum,

Quis nostrûm? Una musarum, Octavus sapientum,

Some one of the philosophers. The elder of the brothers.

The most learned of the Romans.

Which of us? One of the muses.

The eighth of the wise men.

Note 1. That is, adjectives denoting a part of a number govern the genitive plural, which may be resolved into an ablative with de, e, ex, or in, or an accusative with inter.

To this rule belong:

1. Partitives, whether nouns or pronouns; ullus, nullus, solus, uter, uterque, utercunque, utervis, uterlibet, alter, alteruter, neuter, alius, aliquis, quidam, quispiam, quisquis, quisque, unusquisque, aliquot, cæter, reliquus; to which are added onnis, cunctus, and nemo: as, Quisquis deorum—Ovid. Nemo mortalium—Plin. Vestrûm utervis—Cic.

2. Words used partitively: as, Canum degeneres—Plin. Nigræ lanarum—Plin. Sancte deorum—Virg. Expediti militum—Liv. Vulgus Atheniensium—Nep.

3. Comparatives and superlatives: as, O major juvenum—Hor. Villosissimus animalium lepus—Plin.

4. Interrogatives; quis, quisnam, quisve, uter, quot, quotus, quotusquisque: as, Quis mortalium—Sall.

5. Numerals, comprehending both cardinals and ordinals; unus, duo, tres, &c.; primus, secundus, tertius, &c.; also the partitive or distributive, singuli; with multi, pauci, plerique, medius: as, Equitum centum quinquaginta interfecti—Curt. Sapientum octavus—Hor. Multæ arborum—Cic. Quarum quæ media est—Ovid. Singulos vestrûm—Curt.

Note 2. If the substantive be a collective noun, the genitive singular is used: as, Præstantissimus nostræ civitatis—Cic., i. e. nostrorum civium. Totius Græciæ doctissimum—Cic., i. e. omnium Græcorum.

Note 3. The genitive is governed by de, e, or ex, numero, which is often expressed: as, Ex numero adversariorum circiter sexcentis interfectis—Cæs.

Note 4. Instead of the genitive, the ablative is often found, governed by de, e, ex, or in; or the accusative with inter or ante: as, Unus e Stoicis—Cic. But unus put for solus governs the genitive: as, Lampedo una feminarum—Plin. Lampedo the only woman. Accrrimus ex sensibus—Cic. Ipse ante alios pulcherrimus omnes—Virg. Cræsus inter reges opulentissimus—Senec. Ordinals are often construed with a or ab: as, Tertius ab Ænea. Secundus, denoting inferior to, governs the dative: as, Nec sunt tibi Marte secundi—Ovid.

Note 5. The partitive is sometimes understood: as, Fies nobilium tu quoque fontium—Hor. od. 3.13.13. Supply unus.

Note 6. The partitive takes the gender of the substantive governed, when there is no other: as. Nulla sororum—Virg., i. e. Nulla soror e numero sororum. But if the noun governed be a collective, the partitive takes the gender of the noun understood, which the sense will determine: as, Ætatis suæ doctissimus; i. e. doctissimus vir.

Note 7. If there be another substantive expressing the chief subject of discourse, the adjective generally takes the gender of that substantive, and not of the following genitive: as, Indus, qui est omnium fluminum maximus—Cic. Sometimes the former is not expressed: as, Quid (tu) agis dulcissime rerum—Hor. Omnium rerum mors est extremum—Cic., i. e. negotium.

Note S. Sometimes the substantive of partition and the partitive are put in the same case: as, Maxima pars morem hunc homines habent—Plaut. Milites, equites, and pedites are often thus used: as, Ex eodem exercitu pedites quindceim millia, et equites quingenti—Liv.

Note 9. The comparative and the superlative with the genitive of partition are used, when the things compared are of the same nature, class, or description: as, Dextra est fortior manuum. Pollex est fortissimus digitorum. Hence there is an error in the imprecation of the Roman—Ultimus suorum moriatur, Let him die the last of his relatives; for it is evident, that it is improper to speak of him as one of his own friends or relatives. Hence also the impropriety of Quà socer Omatius, magnorum major avorum—Sidon. And the impropriety in English of Milton's The fairest of her daughters Eve. In such instances, the comparative should be used, followed by a Latin ablative, or, in English, by than: as, Omatius major magnis avis. Fairer than her daughters Eve.

Note 10. The comparative with the genitive of partition is used when two persons or things, or two aggregates, are compared together; the superlative, when more than two: thus, Major fratrum refers to two brothers: Maximus fratrum, to three or more. Juniores patrum—Liv. is spoken of in contradistinction to the aggregate of the seniores. These two rules are very general, few violations of them occurring either in Latin or English.

Note 11. Uter, alter, neuter refer in like manner to two; quis, alius, nullus, to more than two. But there are exceptions to this observation. Uterque is also applied to two; quisque and omnis to more than two. But there are a few instances in which quisque and omnis refer to two only.

Note 12. Nostrûm and vestrûm are used after partitives; not nostri and vestri: as, Quàm vestrûm utervis—Cic. but, in his Orations, Cicero pays no regard to this distinction.

RULE XVI. Adjectives signifying profit or disprofit, likeness or unlikeness, require the dative: as,

Utilis bello, Profitable for war.

Perniciosus reipublicæ, Pernicious to the commonwealth. Similis patri, Like his father.

Note 1. That is, adjectives signifying utility or inconvenience, benefit or damage, pleasure or displeasure, and the like, are followed by a dative of the object to which their quality is directed: as, Incommodus filio—Cic. Felix tuis—Virg. Conveniens homini—Ovid. Color contrarius albo—Ovid. Si facis, ut patriæ sit idoneus, utilis agris—Juv.

To this rule belong adjectives signifying

1. Advantage or disadvantage; benignus, bonus, commodus, felix, faustus, fructuosus, prosper, saluber, utilis; also calamitosus, damnosus, dirus, exitiosus, funestus, incommodus, inutilis, malus, noxius, perniciosus, pestifer.

2. Pleasure or pain; acceptus, dulcis, gratus, gratiosus, jucundus, latus, suavis; also acerbus, amarus, insuavis, injucundus, ingratus,

molestus, tristis.

3. Friendship or hatred; addictus, æquus, amicus, benevolus, blandus, carus, deditus, fidus, fidelis, lenis, mitis, propitius; also adversus, asper, crudelis, contrarius, infensus, infestus, infidus, and the like.

4. Perspicuity or obscurity; apertus, certus, compertus, conspicuus, manifestus, notus, perspicuus; also ambiguus, dubius, ignotus, incertus, obscurus

incertus, obscurus.

5. Propinquity; finitimus, propior, proximus, propinquus, socius, vicinus, affinis.

6. Fitness or unfitness; aptus, appositus, accommodatus, habilis,

idoneus, opportunus; also ineptus, inhabilis, &c.
7. Easiness or difficulty; facilis, levis, obvius, pervius; also difficilis, arduus, gravis, laboriosus, periculosus, invius. To these add

pronus, proclivis, propensus, promptus, paratus.

8. Equality or inequality; æqualis, æquævus, par, compar, suppar; also inæqualis, impar, dispar, discors.—Likeness or unlikeness; similis, æmulus, geminus; also dissimilis, absonus, alienus, diversus, discolor.

9. Many compounded with con; cognatus, communis, concolor, concors, confinis, congruus, consanguineus, conscius, conscntaneus, consonus, conveniens, conterminus, contiguus, continens (as Huic fundo continentia quædam prædia mercatur—Cic. i. e. adjoining,

or contiguous to), &c.

10. To these may be added a great number of adjectives that cannot be easily reduced into distinct classes: as, obnoxius, subjectus, supplex, superstes, credulus, absurdus, decorus, deformis, præsto, secundus, &c.—To this rule might also be referred, verbals in bilis and dus.

- Note 2. Some substantives, especially those signifying any affection, or advantage or disadvantage, are followed by the dative: as, Namque erit ille mihi semper Deus—Virg. Matres omnes filis in peccato adjutrices—Ter. Thus also, Ad similitudinem deo propiùs accedebat humana virtus—Cic. Caput Italiæ omni—Liv. But, perhaps, the dative is governed by the substantive verb, expressed or understood, or its obsolete participle ens.
- Note 3. Of the adjectives denoting friendship or hatred, or other affection, to a person, some generally take the dative: as, affabilis, arrogans, asper, carus, difficilis, fidelis, invisus, iratus, offensus, suspectus. But we find also In liberos difficilis.—Poëta vet. ap. Cic. Nat. Deor. iii. 29. Fidelis in filios—Justin. Apud militares invisum esse nomen Romanum—Liv. To the above-mentioned adjectives add dexter, exitialis, falsiloquus, ferus, hospitus, inhospitus, insociabilis, intolerans, jucundus, lævus, morigerus, mortifer, odiosus,

placidus, propitius, scelestus, supplex, tranquillus, trux: as, Dexter Pænis deus-Sil. Seni fuit jucundissimus-Nep. Sontibus esse trucem—Ovid.—Some are followed by in and an accusative: as acerbus, animatus, beneficus, gratiosus, injuriosus, liberalis, mendax, misericors, officiosus, pius, impius, prolixus, severus, sordidus, torrus, vehemens. We also find Animatus erga principem-Suet. Injuriosus adversus patrem—Senec. Misericors adversus bonos— Sence.; with a few more varieties. Acer, aquabilis, intemperans, ingratus, and a few others are found with in. Some are found with a dative, or an accusative governed by in, erga, or adversus: as contumax, criminosus, durus, exitiabilis, gravis, hospitalis, implacabilis, inexorabilis, intolerabilis, iniquus, sævus, Alicui or in aliquem. Benevolus, benignus, molestus, Alicui or erga aliquem. Mitis, comis, Alicui, or in, or erga aliquem. Pervicax adversus aliquem. Crudelis in aliquem, seldom alicui. Amicus, æmulus, infensus, infestus, Alicui, seldom in aliquem. Gratus Alicui, or in, erga, adversus aliquem. The noun vulgus with the preposition in, follows many of these adjectives: as gratus, ingratus, acceptus, ignotus, &c., in vulgus. Id in vulgus gratum esse sentimus, -Cic.

Note 4. Affinis, similis, communis, par, proprius, finitimus, fidus, conterminus, superstes, conscius, æqualis, contrarius, adversus, sometimes govern the dative and sometimes the genitive. Of these, par, fidus, adversus, conterminus, superstes, contrarius govern the dative generally: conscius commonly the genitive, that is, of a thing, but always the dative of a person. Affines facinori-Cic. rerum-Ter. Somnio similis-Curt. tui-Plaut. Omni ætati communis-Cic. virtutum-Cic. Par delicto sit pæna-Ovid. hujus-Lucan. Propria est nobis mentis agitatio—Quinct. Oratoris proprium—Cic. Falsa veris finitima—Cic. Fluvii hujus finitimi— Justin. Fida sorori-Ovid. Tui fidissima-Virg. Fonti contermina-Ovid. Jugi conterminos locos-Apul. Mihi superstes-Ter. dignitatis—Cic. Conscium facinori—Cic. Atque ego peccati vellem mihi conscius essem-Ovid. Æqualis sibi-Plin. temporum illorum Honestati contrariam-Cic. virtutum-Cic. Adversus nemini-Ter. illustrium domuum-Tac. Similis and dissimilis, it is observed, are followed by the genitive when they refer to manners; and by the dative, when to shape or form. Æqualis is followed by a genitive, when it refers to time or age: otherwise, by a dative; but these distinctions are sometimes disregarded.

Note 5. Alienus is construed with a genitive, or dative, or, more frequently an ablative governed by a or ab: as, Alienum dignitatis—Cic. illi causæ—Cic. a me—Ter. The preposition is sometimes omitted: as, Alienum nostrâ amicitiá—Cic. Diversus is generally construed in like manner; it does not, however, admit a genitive, unless in a different sense.

Note 6. To adjectives governing the genitive or dative are added amicus, familiaris, cognatus, propinquus, vicinus, socius, æmulus, germanus, inimicus, invidus, necessarius; but when they govern the

former case, it will be generally found that they are used substantively.

Note 7. Some adjectives vary their construction: as Similes, dissimiles, pares, disparcs, æquales, communes, inter se. Thus also, Ætate et forma haud dissimili in dominum—Tac. Alpina corpora habent quiddam simile cum nivibus suis—Flor.

Note 8. Par and communis, either with or without a dative; consentancus and discors, only when without a dative, take an ablative with cum: as, Erant ei quedam ex his paria cum Crasso—Cic. Quem tu parem cum liberis, regnique participem fecisti—Sall. Locupletibus ferè cum plebe communia—Cic. Illud cum adolescentià esse commune—Cic. Quod erat consentaneum cum iis literis—Cic. Civitas secum discors—Liv.

Note 9. Idem among the poets sometimes governs the dative: as, Invitum qui servat, idem facit occidenti—Hor. In prose, it is construed with qui, et, ac, atque: as, Peripatetici quondam iidem erant qui academici—Cic. Dianam et Lunam eandem esse putant—Cic. Animus erga te idem ac fuit—Ter. Pomarium seminarium ad eundem modum atque oleagineum facito—Cato. In like manner alius is construed with ac, atque, and et; and with an ablative: as, Neve putes alium sapiente bonoque beatum—Hor. Cicero sometimes uses idem ut: as, In eadem sunt injustitia ut si in suam rem aliena convertant—Off. i. 14. It is sometimes construed with cum: as, In eodem consilio crat cum Besso—Curt. But it is improper to use cum, when speaking of the same object under different names: as, Paulus est idem cum Saulo, since Paul and Saul are names of the same person. Sometimes similis and par are construed like idem, that is, with ac, atque, and et.

Note 10. Certain adjectives signifying use, fitness, and the contrary, are construed either with the dative, or the accusative with ad: as, Ad nullam rem utilis—Cic. Ad civium usus hand inutile—Cic. But when the object is a person, the dative only is used: thus aptus, opportunus, utilis mihi, not ad me.

Note 11. Adjectives denoting motion or tendency to a thing, are construed with the accusative and ad, rather than with the dative, such as celer, tardus, velox, piger, impiger, lentus, præceps, rapidus, segnis, declivis, inclinabilis, proclivis, pronus, propensus; also paratus, promptus, profugus: as, Piger ad pænas princeps, ad pramia velox—Ovid. Ad aliquem morbum proclivior—Cic. Ad omne facinus paratus—Cic. Ad lubidinem proclive—Ter. In is sometimes used: as, Celer in pugnam—Sil.

Note 12. Propior and proximus, in imitation of their primitive, prope, have either a dative, or an accusative without the preposition's being expressed: as, Quod propius vero est—Liv. Proximus huic—Virg. Vitium propius virtulem erat—Salt. Proximus Pompeium sedebam—Cic.

Note 13. The dative, according to grammarians, is not, strictly

speaking, governed either by nouns, verbs, or any part of speech, but is subjoined to a word, when acquisition, advantage, or the reverse of these, or when destination in general is denoted.

Rule XVII. Verbals in bilis and dus govern the dative: as,

Amandus vel amabilis omnibus, To be beloved by all men.

- Note 1. That is, verbals in bilis, and future participles passive are followed by the dative, which may be resolved into an ablative governed by a or ab: as, Multis ille bonis flebilis occidit; Nulli flebilior, quam tibi, Virgili—Hor. Restat Chremes, qui mihi exorandus est—Ter.
- Note 2. Perfect participles passive are sometimes followed by the dative: as, Dilecta sorori—Virg. Ego audita tibi putâram—Cic. It is observed by Alvarez, that this construction is most frequent with participles which assume the nature of adjectives: such as notus, perspectus, contemptus, probatus, dilectus, &c. This dative may likewise be resolved into the ablative with a or ab: as, Vexati a civibus—Cic. A me amatus—Quinct. Indeed, passive verbs themselves are often construed, especially by the poets, with a dative, instead of the ablative of the agent: as, Vix audior ulli—Ov. for ab ullo.
- Note 3. Johnson refers to this rule not only verbals in bilis, but other adjectives having a passive signification, such as invius, obvius, pervius, impervius, &c.: as, Troja obvia Graiis—Virg. Nec Cereri terra indocilis, nec inhospita Baccho—Sil. To this rule he likewise refers facilis and utilis construed with the dative of a person: as, Facilis rogantibus—Ovid.
- Note 4. Verbals in bilis are seldom construed but with the dative. The following constructions are, however, to be referred to the ablative of instrument or cause; Nullo penetrabile telo—Ovid. Nullo forabilis ictu—Ovid. Verbals in bilis have generally a passive signification, only a few instances being found in which they signify actively.
- Note 5. Participles in dus are often followed by the ablative with a or ab: as, Admonendum a me--Cic.
- Note 6. Perfect participles are generally followed, especially among prose writers, by an ablative with a preposition: as, Mors Crassi est a multis defleta—Cic. Proditus a socio est—Ovid. In such examples as the last, the dative seems altogether inadmissible.
- Note 7. The English preposition by is the usual sign of this dative.

Rule XVIII. Adjectives signifying dimension govern the accusative of measure: as,

Columna sexaginta pedes alta, A pillar sixty feet high.

- Note 1. Or, adjectives of dimension, such as longus, latus, crassus, profundus, altus, densus, are generally followed by the accusative, but sometimes by the ablative or genitive, of the words denoting measure, such as digitus, palmus, pes, cubitus, ulna, passus, stadium, milliare: as, Muris ducenos pedes altis, quinquagenos latis—Plin. Fossam sex cubitis altam—Liv. Latera pedum lata tricenûm—Plin. Ablative and genitive together; Quidam dupondio et quadrante altum sulcum, latum pedum quinque faciunt—Colum. The genitive is used in the plural only.
- Note 2. The excess or the deficiency of measure is put in the ablative only 1: as, Sesquipede est quam tu longior—Plin. Novem pedibus minor—Plin. Quanto doctior, tanto submissior—Cic. Superant capite—Virg. To this note are referred the ablatives tanto, quanto, quo, co, hoc, aliquanto, multo, paulo, nihilo, &c., frequently joined to comparatives, and sometimes found with superlatives or verbs.
- Note 3. Verbs of dimension, such as pateo, cresco, &c., are construed like the adjectives: as, Patet tres ulnas—Virg. But these will be noticed hereafter, under the Distance of Place.
- Note 4. The accusative is governed by ad or in understood, but sometimes expressed; the ablative, by a, ab, tenus, or in; the genitive, by ad mensuram or spatium.
- Note 5. In Latin, as in English, the adjective is sometimes changed into the substantive: as, Transtra digiti pollicis crassitudine—Cos. in which the ablative is governed by in understood.

Rule XIX. The comparative degree governs the ablative, which is resolved by quam: as,

Dulcior melle, Sweeter than honey. Præstantior auro, Better than gold.

- Note 1. That is, when quam after a comparative is omitted, the substantive following is put in the ablative: as, Thymo dulcior—Virg. Glacie frigidior—Ovid. i. e. quam thymus, quam glacies. It is sometimes resolved by ac or atque: as, Amicior mihi nullus vivit atque is—Plaut.
- Note 2. The positive with magis or minus is sometimes followed by the ablative: as, O luce magis dilecta sorori—Virg. Hoc nemo fuil minus ineptus—Ter.
- Note 3. When the comparative is followed by quam, the objects compared must be put in the same case: as, Ego hominem callidiorem vidi neminem quam Phormionem—Ter. i. c. vidi. It

1 The measure of excess is sometimes expressed by tantum, quantum, ali-

quantum. See Rule XIX, Note 9.

² This seems an imitation of Greek construction; thus ἀνδριὰς δώδικα σήχιων χρύσιος, statua virilis duodecim cubitorum œurea—Herod. The governing substantive is sometimes expressed; as, κατὰ τὸ μίγιθος ἐξ δακτύλων, ad magnitudinem ser palmarum—Diod. Sic.

is to be observed, that only the nominative and accusative can be repeated after quam with the comparative; and that if any other case precede it, the verb sum with a nominative must be used: as, Loquor de viro sapientiore quam tu es. Homini gratiosiori quam Cn. Callidius est—Cic. It is likewise to be observed, that, when the ablative of comparison is nemo, nullus, or the relative qui, it is not with propriety resolved by quam.

Note 4. In such instances, quàm should be used after comparative adverbs: as, Oderam hunc multo pejùs quàm Clodium—Cic.

Note 5. Quam is elegantly put between two comparatives: as, Triumphus clarior quam gratior—Liv. i. e. not so acceptable as famous; or, more famous than acceptable.

Note. 6. Than before a verb is always expressed by quam: as, Nihil turpius est quam mentiri. And quam, between two verbs, if the comparative be an adverb, causes them to be put in the same tenses: as, Nihil facio libentius quam ad te scribo; i. e. than to write to you. But, after potiusquam, and sometimes after priusquam, the verb is put in the subjunctive.

Note 7. Nihil with a neuter comparative is sometimes used for namo or nullus: as, Crasso nihil perfectius—Cic. Nihil illo fuisse excellentius—Nep. i. e. Nobody was. The interrogative quid, and quidquam when it is preceded by a negative, are sometimes thus used.

Note 8. The comparative is often followed by opinione, spe, æquo, solito, justo, dicto: as, Dicto citius—Virg. Solito velocius—Ovid. These ablatives are often omitted: as, Liberiùs vivebat—Nep. i. c. æquo. In such cases the Latin comparative often seems equivalent to an English positive preceded by too or rather, which is a species of comparison: as, Tristior (solito). Rather sad, and, perhaps sometimes, somewhat sad. Severior (æquo). Too severe, rather severe, somewhat severe. Thus also: Onus viribus tuis est majus. Too great for, or greater than.

Note 9. Several intensive particles, such as tanto, quanto, eo, quo, &c. and tantum, quantum and aliquantum are added to comparatives: as, Sed quo erant suaviores, eo majorem dolorem ille casus afferebat—Cic. Ejus frater aliquantum ad rem est avidior—Ter. Sometimes the responsive particle eo or hoc is omitted; as, Quo plures erant, major cædes fuit—Liv.

Note 10. The dative is sometimes used instead of the ablative: as, Vir nulla arte cuiquam inferior—Sall. Livy uses the ablative, even in the presence of another; Allobroges nullá Gallicá gente opibus aut famá inferiores. But, in general, inferior is construed with quàm and a nominative or accusative: as, Timothers belli laude non inferior fuit quàm pater—Cic. Quem ego intelligam prudentiá non esse inferiorem quàm me—Cic.

Note 11. Magis and plus are sometimes used redundantly with the comparative: as, Nihil invenies magis hoc certo certius—Plaut.

Note 12. Quam after plus, amplius and minus is elegantly omitted, in all cases but the dative and vocative: as, Capta plus quinque millia hominum—Liv.

Note 13. Quam pro is sometimes elegantly used after the comparative: as, Prælium atrocius quam pro numero pugnantium—Liv. i. e. The battle was more bloody than could have been expected from the number engaged in it.

Note 14. Comparatives, besides the ablative of comparison, take also after them that case which their positives govern; as, Thymo mihi dulcior Hyblæ—Virg.

Note 15. The ablative of comparison is governed by præ understood. It is sometimes expressed: as, Unus præ cæteris fortior exsurgit—Apul. Other prepositions, as ante, præter and supra, are used in comparison: thus, Scelere ante alios immanior omnes—Virg.

RULE XX. These adjectives, dignus, indignus, contentus, præditus, captus, and fretus; also natus, satus, ortus, editus, and the like, require the ablative: as,

Dignus honore, Præditus virtute, Contentus parvo, Worthy of honour. Endued with virtue. Content with little.

Captus oculis¹, Blind.

Fretus viribus³, Trusting to his strength. Ortus regibus, Descended of kings.

Note 1. To dignus, indignus, contentus, præditus, captus and fretus, may be added carus, vilis, and venalis; all which are followed by an ablative: as, Dignus laude—Hor. Conscientiâ fretus—Curt. Asse carum—Senec. Auro venalia jura—Propert.

Note 2. Participles signifying descent, such as genitus, generatus, creatus, prognatus, cretus, &c. are followed by an ablative, the prepositions e, ex, or de being understood, or sometimes expressed: as, Nate deâ—Virg. Edite regibus—Hor. Ortus ex concubinâ—Sall. — We also find Cœlestè semine oriundi—Lucret. Oriundi a Syracusis—Liv. These adjectives may be followed also by a, or ab: as, Prisco natus ab Inacho—Hor.

Note 3. Dignus, indignus, and contentus are sometimes followed by the genitive: as, Dignissimum tuce virtutis—Cic. Indignus avorum—Virg. Angusti clavi contentus—Paterc. Dignus and indignus are often construed with an infinitive: as, Digna vincere—Ovid. But Dignus est ut, or, qui vincat; Dignus erat ut, or, qui

² Fretus with a dative is attributed to Livy: Multitudo nulli rei, praterquam

numero, freta. vi. 13. Some would read nulla re.

After aignus, indignus, captus, a or ab seems to be understood: after contentus, de or cum; after fretus, in; after præditus, cum; after carus, vilis and venalis, pro.

vincerel, are preferable. It is probable that the genitive is governed by some substantive understood; and that Dignus laudis may be Dignus re laudis, the substantive being governed by a preposition likewise understood.

Rule XXI. An adjective of plenty or want governs the genitive or ablative: as.

Plenus iræ vel irå, Full of anger. Inops rationis, Void of reason.

To this rule belong adjectives denoting

1. Plenty; abundans, beatus, copiosus, dives, ferax, fertilis, fæcundus, fætus, frequens, frugifer, gravis, gravidus, immodicus, largus, locuples, mactus, nimius, oneratus, onustus, opulentus, plenus, refertus, satur, tentus, distentus, tumidus, turgidus, uber; to which add, benignus, firmus, instructus, lætus, liberalis, munificus, paratus, prodigus, prosper, satiatus, insatiabilis: as, Res plena timoris—Ovid. Domus servis est plena superbis—Juv.

2. Want; egenus, indigus, inops, jejunus, inanis, modicus, pauper, sterilis, tenuis, vacuus: as, Inops consilii—Tac. verbis—Cic.

3. Privation; captus (mentioned in the preceding rule), cassus, expers, exsors, dissors, exsul, extorris, immunis, irritus, mutilus, nudus, orbus, truncus, viduus. Participation; consors, particeps, and to these may be added affinis and pracditus, which have been already noticed elsewhere. Power and inability; compos, pollens, potens, impos, impotens;—add liber, solutus, imparatus, infirmus, parcus, purus, many of which have been referred to other rules: as, Immunis delictorum—Paterc. vitiis—Paterc. Consiliorum particeps—Curt. ratione—Cic. Dum mei potens sum—Liv. Potens armis—Virg. Spei metusque liber.—Senec. terrorc—Cic. Some constructions are not frequent; as, Captus animi—Tac. Neque animo aut linguâ satis compotes—Sall. Famá atque fortuná expertes—Sall.

Note 1. Of these some govern, it appears,

1. The genitive only; benignus, exsors, impos, impotens, irritus, liberalis, munificus, prælargus.

2. The ablative only; beatus, differtus, frugifer, mutilus, tentus,

distentus, tumidus, turgidus.

3. The genitive more frequently; compos, consors, egenus, exhæres, expers, fertilis, indigus, parcus, pauper, prodigus, sterilis, prosper, insatiatus, insatiabilis.

4. The ablative more frequently; abundans, cassus, extorris, firmus, fætus, frequens, gravis, gravidus, jejunus, infirmus, liber, locuples, lætus, nudus, oneratus, onustus, orbus, pollens, satiatus,

solutus, tenuis, truncus, viduus.

5. The genitive or ablative indifferently; copiosus, dives, fæ-cundus, ferax, immunis, inanis, inops, largus, mactus, modicus, immodicus, nimius, opulentus, plenus, potens, purus, refertus, satur, vacuus, uber.

Note 2. Copiosus, firmus, paratus, imparatus, inops, instructus,

extorris, orbus, pauper, tennis, fæcundus, modicus, parcus, immunis, inanis, liber, nudus, solutus, vacuus, potens, sterilis, have often a preposition after them: as, Locus copiosus a frumento—Cic. Ab equitatu firmus—Cic. Ab omni re paratus—Cic. Imparatus a pecuniā—Cic. Inops ab amicis—Cic. Instructus a doctrinā—Cic. Meo sum pauper in ære—Hor. Tenuis in verbis serendis—Hor. Parcus in victu, modicus in cultu—Plin. Domus liber a conspectu, immunis ab arbitris—Vell. Inanis a marsupio—Prudent. Messana ab his rebus vacua atque nuda est—Cic. Solutus a cupiditatibus, liber a delictis—Cic. In affectibus potentissimus—Quinct. Potens ad efficiendum—Quinct. in res bellicas—Liv.¹ Civitas ab aquis sterilis—Apul. Extorris ab solo patrio—Liv. Orba ab optimatibus—Cic.

Note 3. Benignus, prosper, lætus, gravis, and some others, govern the dative, by Rule XVI, but in a different sense. Those adjectives that govern the genitive only have been referred by some grammarians to Rule XIV.

Note 4. The authorities for different constructions should be properly estimated, for some are poetical; as, Liber laborum—Hor. Vini somnique benignus—Hor. Abundans lactis—Virg. Tenuis opum—Sil. Others are uncommon: as, Captus animi—Tac. and some others already mentioned. Expers may be found with the ablative, but the genitive is much more common. Pauper and egenus do not appear to be found with the ablative.

Note 5. Neither the genitive nor the ablative is governed, strictly speaking, by the adjectives: but the genitives are governed by re or negotio understood, and these, as well as the other ablatives, by the prepositions in, a, ab, de, or ex: thus Vacuus curarum may be Vacuus re curarum; Vacuus curis is Vacuu sa curis.

OF VERBS.

OF PERSONAL VERBS.

RULE XXII. Sum, when it signifies possession, property, or duty, governs the genitive: as,

Est regis punire rebelles, It belongs to the king to punish

Insipientis est dicere,
Non putáram,
Militum est suo duci
parere,

rebels.
It is the property of a fool to say, I had not thought.
It is the duty of soldiers to obey their general.

^{&#}x27; Potens is construed with the genitive or ablative, but in different senses. If we say Potens iræ, we refer to the object; if we say Potens opibus, we refer to the source or cause of the power.

Note 1. Thus also, Jam me Pompeii totum esse scis—Cic. Adolescentis est majores natu revereri—Cic. Boni pastoris est tondere

pecus-Suet.

Note 2. To this rule may be referred the following, and similar expressions: Suadere principi quod oporteat, multi laboris (est)— Tac. Grates persolvere dignas, Non opis est nostræ-Virg. Est hoc Gallicæ consuetudinis—Cæs. Moris antiqui fuit—Plin. In all such expressions it is evident that the genitive is governed, not by sum, but by such words as officium, munus, opus, negotium, res, causa, proprium, understood. Indeed, such words are sometimes expressed: as, Principum munus est resistere levitati multitudinis -Cic. Sometimes the preceding word is to be repeated: as, Hoc pecus est (pecus) Melibæi-Virg. To the same rule may be referred a common elliptical form of writing, according to which the participle in dus with its substantive is subjoined to the verb sum: as, Quæ res evertendæ reipublicæ solent esse-Cic. Regium imperium, quod initio conservandæ libertatis, et augendæ reipublicæ fuerat-Sall. Quæ postquam gloriosa modò, neque belli patrandi cognovit—Liv. supply esse. This genitive is found depending upon other verbs besides sum.——Grammarians differ about the manner of supplying the ellipsis in these, some supposing instrumentum or adminiculum to be understood; others, causa, ergô, gratia, or ratione, with some such word as constitutus or comparatus.

Rule XXIII. These nominatives meum, tuum, suum, nostrum, vestrum, are excepted: as,

Tunm est id procurare, It is your duty to manage that.

Note 1. That is, instead of mei, tui, sui, nostri, vestri, the genitives of the primitive pronouns, the nominative neuter of the possessives is used, agreeing with opus, negotium, officium, or the like, understood.—Certain possessive adjectives; as, regius, humanus, belluinus, servilis, are often used in like manner: as, Non est mentiri meum—Ter. Humanum est errare—Ter. Et agere et pati fortia Romanum est—Liv.

Note 2. If sum be in the infinitive mood, the possessives must be put in a different case; and if a substantive be expressed, they must agree with it in gender: as, Puto esse meum—Cic. Hæ partes fuerunt tuæ—Cic. equivalent to Tuum fuit, or Tuarum partium

furt.

Note 3. It is evident that this cannot be deemed a distinct rule. It is the same as Rule III, an infinitive, a part of a sentence, or some neuter noun understood, being as one of the nominatives, and requiring the adjective following the verb to be in the neuter gender, to which some neuter noun may be supposed understood.

RULE XXIV. Misereor, miseresco and satago, govern the genitive: as,

Miserere civium tuorum, Take pity on your countrymen. Satagit rerum suarum, He is busy with his own affairs.

- Note 1. Thus also Miserere mei—Ovid. Et generis miseresce tui—Stat. Irarum et molestiarum muliebrium satagebat—Gell.
- Note2. Misereor and miseresco may be found with a dative, among writers of inferior authority. Miseror governs the accusative.
- Note 3. The genitive does not appear to be governed by the verb.—Some consider such constructions as Græcisms; others think that the genitive is governed by negotio, re, causâ, or the like, understood, with the prepositions in, de, or a.
- Note 4. Many other verbs denoting some affection of the mind are followed by a genitive: as, ango, decipior, desipio, discrucior, fallo, fallor, fastidio, invideo, lætor, miror, pendeo, studeo, vercor: thus, Absurde facis qui angas te animi—Plaut. Discrucior animi—Ter. Fallebar sermonis—Plaut. Lætor malorum—Virg.
- Note 5. Many others are found with the genitive, in imitation of Greek construction: as, abstineo, desino, desisto, quiesco, regno; also, adipiscor, condico, credo, frustror, furo, laudo, libero, levo, participo, prohibeo: thus, Abstineto irarum—Hor. Desine quere-larum—Hor. Tempus desistere pugnæ—Virg. Daunus agrestium regnavit populorum—Hor. Dominationis adipisceretur—Tac. Levas me laborum—Plaut. &c. The ellipsis in these constructions, and in those contained in the preceding note, is variously supplied: thus, Discrucior animi, sc. dolore. Regnavit populorum, sc. in cætu. Levas laborum, sc. onere, &c.
- Note 6. The verbs contained in Note 4 are more commonly construed thus; angor, desipio, discrucior, fallor, animo. Angi de aliquo, Angere aliquem, and Fallit me animus, are used by Cicero. Hoc animum excruciat. Fastidio, miror, vereor, aliquem vel aliquid. Lætor aliquâ re. Cicero uses Lætor in re aliquâ, de hac re, and Lætor utrumque. Invideo alicui laudes, vel laudibus alicujus. Pendeo animi vel animo; but Pendemus animis, not animorum. Studeo alicui, vel aliquid. Likewise, In id solum student—Quinct.
- Note 7. The examples contained in Note 5 are chiefly poetical. It is much better to say Abstineo maledictis or a maledictis. Desino aliquid or ab aliquo. Desisto incepto, de negotio, ab illa mente. Regnare onnibus oppidis—Cic. in being understood. Adipisci aliquid. Levare aliquem sollicitudine, or alicujus sollicitudinem, &c.

Rule XXV. Est taken for habeo (to have) takes the dative of a person: as,

Est mihi liber, I have a book. Sunt mihi libri, I have books.

Note 1. Thus also, Est mihi pater—Virg. Sunt nobis mitia poma—Virg. i. e. Ego habeo patrem:—Nos habemus mitia poma, the English accusative becoming in Latin the nominative to the

third person singular or plural of sum, or the accusative before its infinitive; and the English nominative being turned into a dative.

Note 2. To this rule may be added suppetit, suppeditat used in a neuter sense, and foret; and the verbs of a contrary signification, deest, deforet, and defit, used for careo or non habeo: as, Pauper enim non est, cui rerum suppetit usus—Hor. Publio neque animus in periculis, neque oratio suppeditavit—Tac. But in this example perhaps a reciprocal pronoun is understood; for suppedito, as an active verb, governs the accusative, and as a verb of giving, the dative likewise. Si mihi cauda foret—Mart. Defuit ars vobis—Ovid. Non defore Arsacidis virtutem—Tac. Lac mihi non defit—Virg.

Note 3. The dative is often understood: as, Sit spes fallendi, miscebis sacra profanis—Hor., i. e. tibi.

Rule XXVI. Sum used for affero (to bring) takes two datives, the one of a person, and the other of a thing²: as, Est mihi voluptati, It is (or it brings) a pleasure to me.

Note 1. Or, Sum taken for affero, (into which, however, it cannot always be resolved, when followed by two datives,) forem, do, duco, habeo, tribuo, relinguo, verto, to which may be added appono, assigno, cedo, comparo, pateo, suppedito, venio, co, curro, proficiscor, are found with two datives, the one generally of a person, or of something personified, and the other of a thing: as, Vitis arboribus decori est-Virg. Sibi enim fore cætera curæ-Ovid. Matri puellam dono dedit - Ter. Tu nunc tibi id laudi ducis - Ter. Utrum studione id sibi habeat, an laudi putat fore—Ter. Quod illi tribuebatur ignaviæ—Cic. Ea relicta est huic arrhaboni—Ter. Hoc verto tibi vitio-Plaut.—Postulare id gratiæ apponi sibi-Ter. Subsidio mihi diligentiam comparavi—Cic. Pateant Carthaginis arces Hospitio Teucris-Virg. Si illi pergo suppeditare sumptibus-Ter. Maturavit collegæ venire auxilio-Liv. Also, Venire, ire, currere, proficisci subsidio alicui-Cic.-- To these are added by the auther of the Port Royal Grammar puto, and, by other grammarians, mitto. But Ruddiman observes that puto is never followed by two datives, unless when esse or fore is expressed or understood, which of course is considered as the governing word. It further appears to me, that the two datives which follow several of the above-mentioned verbs may perhaps be governed by sum understood, and that, e. g. Numidas subsidio oppidanis mittit—Cæs. may be, Numidas (ut sint, or qui sint) subsidio oppidanis mittit. But this is a The following example, in which, by a Greek form conjecture. of much elegance, the participle volenti is used instead of the substantive voluptati, may seem to sanction the opinion that puto is followed by two datives: Negue plebi militia volenti putabatur—

¹ It likewise governs two datives, as will be noticed in the next rule.

² It has been conjectured, that this Dative is an old form of the ablative, roverned by pro und and or expressing cause or instrument.

Sall. But here the infinitive of sum is understood.—To this rule may perhaps be referred the elegant phrase, Esse audientem dicto alicui. Si prætori dicto non audiens esset—Liv.

Note 2. The English of those passages, in which this Rule takes place, would naturally refer them to Rule III, or X, and, indeed, they may be so rendered: as, Ipse cateris fuisset exemplum—Curt. Amor exitium est pecori-Virg. in which the substantive following the verb, and expressing the thing, is put in the same case with the word going before, the dative of the person being under the government of the noun or verb immediately preceding. But, as the latter nominative is followed by a noun having in English the sign of the Latin dative, both the nouns following the verb are elegantly put in the dative: as, Hic multis fuit exemplo—Curt. Thus also, Æthiopicis laus datur-Plin. and, elegantly, Metello laudi datum est—Cic. Sometimes both the nouns significant of one and the same subject follow the verb: as, He sends up the cohorts to assist (as an assistance to) the cavalry, Submittit cohortes equitibus subsidio-Cæs, in which cohortes and subsidio refer to the same thing. Thus likewise Dare dono and donum; Relinquere regnum prædæ and prædam. Other forms are sometimes used: as, Ad laudem vertere. In crimen vertere. In glorià ducere, &c.

Note 3. To this rule are sometimes referred such forms of naming as the following, in which the nominative, the genitive, and dative are used; Nominative, Mihi nomen est Sosia—Plaut. Fons, cui nomen Arethusa est—Cic. Genitive, Nomen Mercurii est mihi—Plaut. Dative, Nomen Arcturo est mihi—Plaut. Ascanius, cui nunc cognomen Iulo additur—Virg.—The following expressions may likewise be added: Esse cordi, usui, derisui, prada, ludibrio, sc. alicui. Habere cura, quastui, sc sibi. Canere receptui, sc. militibus. Indeed, the dative of the person is frequently omitted: thus also, Exemplo est magni formica laboris—Hor. i. e. nobis or omnibus. Reliquit pignori putamina—Plaut. i. e. mihi.

Rule XXVII. A verb signifying advantage or disadvantage requires the dative: as,

Fortuna favet fortibus, Nemini noceas, Fortune favours the brave. Do hurt to no one.

Note 1. Or, most verbs used acquisitively, of which, in English, the usual signs, either expressed or understood, are to and for, are followed by the dative: as, Tibi aras, tibi occas, tibi seris, tibi eidem et metis—Plaut. Mihi quidem Scipio vivit, vivetque semper—Cic.—This is a rule of very great extent; but, in a more particular manner, are referred to it, verbs signifying,

1. To profit or hurt; as proficio, placeo, commodo, prospicio, ca-veo, metuo, timeo, consulo, (to provide for or against); also, nocco,

¹ The genitive is seldom used; the dative is esteemed the most elegant; thus also P. Scipio, cui posteà Africano cognomen fuit—Sall. No example belongs to the rule, in which there are not two datives.

officio, incommodo, displiceo, insidior: thus, Neve mihi noceat, quod

vobis semper, Achivi, Profuit ingenium-Ovid.

2. To favour or help, and the contrary; as faveo, gratulor, gratificor, grator, ignosco, indulgeo, parco, studeo, adulor, plaudo, blandior, lenocinor, palpor, assentor, supplico, subparasitor; also, auxilior, adminiculor, subvenio, succurro, patrocinor, medeor, medicor, opitulor; also, derogo, detraho, invideo, æmulor; thus, Favete innocentiæ—Cic. Succurrere communi saluti—Cic.

3. To command, obey, serve, and resist; as impero, præcipio, mando, moderor (to restrain); also, pareo, ausculto, obedio, obsequor, obtempero, morigeror, obsecundo; also, famulor, servio, inservio, ministro, ancillor; and repugno, obsto, reluctor, renitor, resisto, refragor, adversor, and, poetically, pugno, certo, bello, contendo, concurro, luctor; thus, Imperare animo nequivi, quin—Liv. Pugnabis amori?—Virg.

4. To threaten, or be angry with; as minor, comminor, inter-

minor, irascor, succenseo; thus Mihi minabatur-Cic.

5. To trust; as fido, confido, credo; also diffido, despero: thus,

Ulli rei fidere-Liv. Desperare saluti-Cic.

6. A great number of other verbs that are not easily reduced to distinct classes; such as nubo, excello, hæreo, supplico, cedo', operor, præstolor, prævaricor, recipio (to promise), pepigi (I have promised), renuncio (to give over), respondeo (to satisfy), tempero (to abstain), vaco (to study, or attend to), convicior, &c.

7. The compounds of sum, except possum: as, Nec sibi, nec

alteri prosunt—Cic. Vir abest mihi—Ovid.

8. Verbs compounded with satis, bene, male: as, Pulchrum est benefacere reipublicæ—Sall.

9. Many verbs compounded with ad, ante, con, in, inter, ob,

præ, sub, super.

Ad; as accedo, accresco, accumbo, acquiesco, adno, adnato, adequito, adhæreo, adsto, adstipulor, advolvor, affulgeo, allabor, annuo, appareo, applaudo, appropinquo, arrideo, aspiro, assentior, assideo, assisto, assuesco, assurgo: thus, Annue cæptis—Virg.

Ante; as antecello, anteco, antesto, anteverto: thus, Antecellero

omnibus—Cic.

Con; as colludo, concino, consono, convivo: thus, Paribus collu-

dere-Hor.

In; as incumbo, indormio, inhio, ingemisco, inhæreo, innascor, innitor, insideo, insto, insisto, insudo, insulto, invigilo, illacrymo, illudo, immineo, immorior, immoror, impendeo; thus, Imminet his aër—Ovid.

1 Cedo put for locum dare governs the dative. When an accusative is joined to it, as in Cedere locum alicui, Perizonius is of opinion, that this accusative is governed by quod ad understood, since cedo is a neuter verb. Its usual construction is with the ablative: as, Postquam Tusculana villa creditoribus cesserat—Suet. Ill. Gramm. Cedere se illi regno profitetur—Justin. Nisi sibi hortorum possessione cessisset—Cic. The preposition de, which in these instances is understood, is expressed in others: as, Cedo de republica, de fortuna, de dignitate—Cic. We also find, Cedere ab oppido, ex civitate, &c.

Inter; as intervenio, intermico, intercedo, intercido, interjaceo;

thus, Nox prælio intervenit-Liv.

Ob; as obrepo, obluctor, obtrecto, obstrepo, obmurmuro, occumbo, occurro, occurso, obsto, obsisto, obvenio: thus, Occumbere morti—Virg.

Præ; as præcedo, præcurro, præeo, præsideo, præluceo, præniteo, præsto, prævaleo, prævertor: thus, Majoribus præluxi—Cic.
Sub; as succedo, succumbo, sufficio, suffragor, subcresco, suboleo,

subjaceo, subrepo: thus, Miseris succurrere-Virg.

Super; as supervenio, supercurro, supersto: thus, Timidis supervenit—Virg. But most verbs compounded with super govern the accusative, through the preposition: as, Deas supereminet omnes—Virg. Supervenio also governs the accusative, but in a sense somewhat different from that in the preceding example: as, Crura loquentis Terra supervenit—Ovid. In the former example, it seems to denote she comes to the assistance of: in the latter, the earth simply came over. Supersedee is sometimes joined with the dative: as, Adversarios pugnæ supersedere animadvertit—Hirt. B. Afr. but oftener the ablative: as, Supersedeas hoc labore—Cic. In these instances its meaning seems to be to omit or leave off; it is found also with an accusative, in its literal acceptation of sitting upon, but even in this sense, the dative, or perhaps rather the ablative, is more common.

A few verbs might be added, compounded of ab, de, ex, circum, contra; but these generally take the case of the preposition.

EXCEPTIONS.

Jubeo, offendo, lædo, juvo, delecto, guberno, govern the accusative: as, Dextraque silentia jussit-Lucan. But the accusative following jubeo is generally supposed to depend upon some infinitive understood, such as facere, fieri, esse or dari -- It is generally found with the accusative and the infinitive; sometimes with a dative and the infinitive; and seldom with an accusative and dative together: thus, Fuscum salvere jubemus-Hor. Hæ mihi literæ Dolabellæ jubent ad pristinas cogitationes reverti-Cic. Pacem jubebo omnibus-Stat. But, as this verb is used in the passive voice, not merely impersonally, but after the manner of active verbs, whose accusatives then become nominatives, it may be observed, that its proper and regular government in the active, is the Impero, a verb of like signification with juleo, is accusative. followed by an accusative of the thing demanded: as, Imperare tributum, pecuniam, arma, equites, which some grammarians, conceiving impero to be neuter, consider as dependent upon dari, præberi, or the like, understood. By others, however, it is regarded as active, governing of itself the accusative, and having a regular passive voice, the accusative becoming the nominative to the verb: as, Imperaturei pudicitia-Just. Imperatæ pecuniæ-Cæs. Naves imperatæ sunt-Curt. Obsidibus imperatis-Cæs. Illi se, quæ imperarentur, facere dixerunt - Cæs. Indeed, it appears that it once

admitted an accusative, of the person commanded, as we find Ego imperor—Hor. Epist. 1, 5, 21, instead of mihi imperatur. In regard to the construction of this verb, I am decidedly of opinion, that there is no ellipsis, but that it is followed by the dative of the person commanded, and governs the accusative of whatever is commanded or demanded, which last case becomes the nominative to the passive voice: thus, Equites imperare civitatibus—Cæs. Nuptias imperare alicui-Quinct. Suis, ut idem faciant, imperat-Cæs. in which the words ut idem faciant supply the place of the accusative of the thing commanded. Malo imperari quam eripi mortem mihi-Senec. In such expressions as Equitatum procedere imperat -Cæs. equitatum expresses neither the persons commanded, nor the command itself, but the words equitatum procedere, taken together, stand for an accusative expressing the thing commanded. Ego imperor for mihi imperatur is entirely poetical. The government of the other five has never been a subject of doubt: thus, Cur amicum offendam in nugis-Hor. Also, Offendere aliquem, or aliquia, for to find; in re alique, for to transgress. Injuste neminem læsit-Cic. Juvit facundia causam-Ovid. Libris me delecto -Cic. Omnia gubernes-Cic.

Note 2. The greater part of the verbs hitherto mentioned as governing the dative are neuter. Many active verbs govern a dative with the accusative, as will be hereafter noticed. It is likewise to be observed that the greater part of the verbs compounded with ad, ante, con, &c. do not govern the dative: such as accolo, antegredior, ineo, invado, intercurso, oppugno, obsideo, postvenio, prævenio, subsilio, supernato, &c.; and, that, besides those which have been mentioned, there are many, signifying profit, assistance, favour, and the coutrary, which are construed with the accusative, or otherwise; such as levo, erigo, alo, nutrio, amo, diligo, vexo, crucio, aversor, &c.

Note 3. Many of the verbs which have been enumerated as belonging to this rule, are found differently construed, while their signification remains the same; and many vary their meaning; of both which, lists will be given at the end of the Syntax.

Note 4. To this rule are referred many verbs which, among the poets chiefly, are construed with a dative, after the manner of the Greeks, but which are commonly found with the ablative and a preposition, according to Latin construction; as verbs of

1. Contending; contendo, certo, tello, luctor, pugno alicui for cum aliquo. Solus tibi certet Amyntas—Virg. We also find Contendere contra or adversus aliquem—Cic. Certare inter se—Cic. Pugnare contra or adversus—Quinct. Plin. inter se—Curt. in aliquem—Liv.

2. Differing; as distare, dissentire, discrepare, dissidere, differre rei alicui, for a re aliquâ. Paulum sepultæ distat inertiæ Celata virtus—Hor. We also find distant, dissentiunt, discrepant, dissident, different inter se--Cic. Distare metâ—Ovid. Dissentire, dis-

sidere cum aliquo-Cic. Differt inter opinionem meam et tuam-Cic.

- 3. Coming together, and mixing; as coeo, concurro, concumbo, misceo: thus, Placidis coëant immitia—Hor. Concurrere hosti—Ovid. Concubuisse deæ—Propert. Mista Deo mulier—Virg. instead of cum placidis, cum hoste, &c. We also find Coire, concurrere, inter se—Virg. and Liv. Miscere vinum aquæ, or cum aquá, or aquá, &c.
- 4. Keeping or driving away; as Arcebis gravido pecori—Virg. Solstitium pecori defendite—Virg. But these belong to verbs of taking away, which govern two cases, and will be hereafter noticed.
- 5. Passive verbs: as Non intelligor ulli—Ovid. for ab ullo. Neque cernitur ulli—Virg.
- Note 5. Verbs of calling, or exhorting; as voco, hortor, invito, provoco, lacesso, animo, stimulo, with specto, pertineo, attineo, conformo, and some other verbs denoting tendency to motion, are followed by an accusative with ad: thus, Eurum ad se vocat—Virg. Ad cœnam hominem invitavit—Cic. Ad arma res spectant—Cic. Provocasse ad pugnam—Cic. Me conformo ad ejus voluntatem—Cic. &c.
- Note 6. Verbs of local motion; as eo, vado, curro, propero, festino, pergo, fugio; also porto, fero, lego, -as, præcipito, tollo, traho, duco, verto, &c. and incito, suscito, tendo, vergo, inclino, and the like, are followed by an accusative with ad or in: as, In jus nunquam iit—Nep. Vergimur in senium—Stat. Vergit ad septemtriones—Cæs.—But the poets sometimes use a dative: as, It clamor cælo--Virg. Inferret deos Latio--Virg. The verb propinquo is generally construed with the dative: as, Propinquare castris, foritus, scopulo--Virg. campis, littori, &c.-Tacit. Sallust writes Propinquare amnem; in which, ad may perhaps be understood. It is found however with an accusative, but in an active sense: as Tu ritè propinques augurium--Virg. Morten licet arma propinquent--Sil.
- Note 7. Verbs compounded with ad are variously construed. Some generally govern the dative only; as assideo, assurgo, adversor, alicui. Plautus uses Adversari adversus sententiam——Some generally have an accusative with ad or in; as accio, accurro, adhortor, advoco, allicio, alligo, attraho, &c.——Some have either construction; as accedo, accido, adhibeo, adjicio, affigo, allido, appono, adnato, adsto, advigilo, alludo, aspiro, &c. several of which, being active verbs, have an accusative with a dative, as will be hereafter noticed—Some, the accusative, without the preposition's being repeated; as advehor, affor, alloquor, alluo, attono—Some, the accusative with or without a preposition; as, adeo, adveho, advento, aggredior, ascendo, aspicio—Some, the dative, or the accusative without a preposition; as adequito, adjacco, adno, adstrepo,

adsulto—Some, the dative, or the accusative with or without a preposition; as Advolvi genibus, genua, ad genua. Thus also accedo, advenio, advolo, allabor, appropinquo, for which see the lists.

Note 8. The verb occurro, signifying to come together, or run, is frequently followed by ad: as, Ad consilium occurrere—Liv. but it is generally followed by the dative: and it has been observed, that, when it signifies to meet, it is not used in the first person singular, but that the English objective case is turned, in Latin, into the nominative, and the nominative into the dative: as, Meus pater mihi occurrit, I met my father.

Note 9. Even verbs governing two cases have a dative, by this rule: as, Accuso te illi, as well as apud illum, or coram illo, magni sceleris, or de magno scelere.

Note 10. When the passive form of an English verb is to be expressed by a Latin neuter, or deponent, the phrase must be varied: thus, I was favoured by fortune, Fortuna mihi favebat. A master ought to be loved and respected by his scholars, Discipuli debent amare et revereri præceptorem. Thus also, the neuter may be used in the passive voice, but impersonally; as I am favoured, Mihi favetur.

Rule XXVIII. A verb signifying actively governs the accusative: as,

Ama Deum, Love God. Reverence your parents.

Note 1. That is, verbs transitive, whether they be active, deponent, or common, govern an accusative of the object to which their energy passes: as, Animum rege—Hor. Agrum depopulatus

est-Liv. Imprimis venerare Deos-Virg.

Note 2. Sometimes there is an ellipsis of the governing verb: as, Quid multa?—Cic. i. e. dicam or loquar.

Note 3. The accusative is frequently understood: as, Solus Sannio servat domi.—Ter. i.e. res quæ sunt domi, or res domesticas.

1 That all verbs whose signification is active and extends to an object, do not govern the accusative, may be seen by a slight examination of the preceding rule. There is the same kind of action and of communication of action in nocco as in lædo; and yet we say Noceo tibi, and Lædo te. We may also say Tu læderis, in which the pronoun following the active voice, becomes the nominative; but we cannot say Tu noceris, (but nocetur tibi,) because noceo, though a verb of an active signification, is considered in regard to government as neuter. I am aware, that, in the dictionaries, noceo is denominated active, in reference both to its signification and government; and that there are a few instances in which it seems to be used passively; but, its true syntactical character is neuter, and, as such, it cannot be used passively, but in the third person singular, and that impersonally, the object of its active signification still remaining in the dative, instead of becoming a nominative, as happens after the passive tenses of active transitive verbs. It is needless to observe, that such active intransitive verbs as co, venio, curro, &c. signify actively; but, that, as their action is limited to the subject or agent, they are necessarily precluded from governing an accusative.

Cum faciam vitulâ—Virg. i. e. sacra. Nox præcipitat—Virg. i. e. se. Eo lavatum—Hor. i. e. me. The accusative of the pronoun is frequently understood to many verbs, which, on this account, have been named absolute, or have been, without sufficient reason, considered as intransitive; such as abstineo, celero, declino, and many others, which will be noticed, at the end of Syntax, after the list of verbs construed actively and neuterly.

Note 4. The infinitive, or a sentence, sometimes supplies the place of the accusative: as, Reddes dulce loqui—Hor. i. e. dulcem sermonem. Feci è servo libertus ut esses mihi—Ter. i. e. te libertum. Vereor ne a doctis reprehendar—Cic. i. e. doctorum reprehensionem.

Note 5. Some active verbs are variously construed: as, Colere, incolere, habitare locum, and in loco; Confiteri crimen, and de crimine—Cic. Intueri aliquem, and in aliquem—Cic. Respicere, spectare, visere, revisere aliquem, and ad aliquem. Declinare locum, and a loco. In some of these constructions, the active verb either imitates the nature of the neuter verb, or has se, or some similar word, understood to it.

OF NEUTER OR ABSOLUTE VERBS.

Note 6. Neuter verbs admit after them an accusative of their own or a kindred signification: as, Vitam vivere—Plaut. Furere furorem—Virg. Noxam nocuerunt—Liv. Servitutem serviat—Plaut. This phraseology seems of Greek origin, for the last example is equivalent to the Greek δελεύειν δελείαν. It is also common in English: as, to live a life. Thus also, Ire viam—Virg. Somnum humanum quievi—Apul. When taken in a metaphorical or active sense, they have sometimes an accusative: as, Corydon ardebat Alexin—Virg. i. e. ardenter vel vehementer amabat. Nec vox hominem sonat—Virg. i. e. nor does the voice bespeak or show the person to be the man. Thus also; Olet hircum—Hor. Abolere maculam—Justin. Morientem nomine clamat—Virg. Omnes una manet nox—Hor. i. e. awaits,

Note 7. Instead of the foregoing accusatives, an ablative is frequently subjoined: as, Ire nostris itineribus—Cic. Morte obiit repentinā. Ludere aleā—Hor. These are governed by a preposition understood.

Note 8. The poets use the neuter gender of adjectives, either

¹ The accusative after certain active verbs, generally when they are used in some figurative sense, is governed, not by the verb, but by some preposition understood, the accusative which is the real object of the verb, being understood; thus Ferire, icere, percutere fædus, is put for Ferire, icere, or porcum ad sanciendum fædus. Conserver prælium, for Conserver manum ad prælium faciendum. Plangere funera, damna, for Plangere lucertos or pectus ad funeral ad damna. In English, too, we say, To strike a bargain; but there is little doubt, that, here, the bargain is not the real object of the action contained in the verb strike, but that this is, in some way, or from some custom, an indication of a bargain's being agreed upon.

singular or plural, adverbially or instead of adverbs: as, Torvum repente clamat—Virg. for torvè. Et pede terram Crebra ferit—Virg. for crebrò. This use of the neuter gender after neuter verbs or their participles is almost peculiar to the poets; but Tacitus writes, Tiberius torvus aut falsum renidens vultu—Ann. iv. 60. 3. The following from Horace is quoted as an instance on neuter gender used adverbially after the participle of a verb having an active signification; Lalagen amabo dulce loquentem; i. e. sweetly; in which, however, dulce, having some substantive understood to it, may, perhaps, be governed by loquentem; but this renders the meaning somewhat different from what it is if dulce be considered as used for dulciter, and as qualifying the participle.

Note 9. The accusatives hoc, id, quid, aliquid, quicquid, nihil, idem, illud, tantum, quantum, multa, pauca, alia, cætera, omnia, are often subjoined to neuter verbs, circa, ob, propter, or secundum (or ματα) being understood: as, Num id lacrumat virgo?—Ter. Scio quid erres—Plaut. Quicquid delirant reges, plectuntur Achivi—Hor. Illud cave dubites—Cic. Other accusatives may be found after such verbs as abnuo, fastidio, horreo, ardeo, caleo, tepeo, latro, sibilo, palleo, paveo, tremo, trepido, pereo, depereo, dolco, gemo, fleo, ploro, lacrymo, ambulo, curro, co, procedo, vado, venio, juro, vigilo, dormio, nato, navigo, equito, &c. but they are governed by some preposition understood. Such constructions as the following are to be referred to the licentia poetica, or to an imitation of it: Via ambulatur, navigatur mare, Bellum hoc tibi militabilur—Hor. Pugnā pugnatā—Cic. Dormitur hyems—Mart. Vivitur ætas¹—Ovid. &c.

Note 10. Certain verbs, which in their simple form are intransitive, govern an accusative, through the preposition with which they are compounded: as, Adeo patrem; Villam prætereo—Ter. Flumen præterfluit muros-Liv. Evaditque celer ripam irremeabilis und - Virg. Excedere modum. It is true that e and ex govern the ablative; but it is supposed that they are put for extra: as præ, which also governs the ablative, is for præter, in Volucrem fugå prævertitur Hebrum-Virg. Vado likewise, when compounded with in, becomes transitive: as, Vitam hominum invasisse-Cic. Cicero has also repeated the preposition: as, In multas pecunias invasit. —- Various verbs of motion are influenced in like manner².—In all the preceding remarks concerning the accusative, it is a fundamental rule, that every accusative must be governed by a transitive verb, or a verb used transitively, or by a preposition, if not expressed, at least, understood. The same remark is applicable to adjectives, or participles, in regard to an

² A similar thing occurs in English; as go, intransitive; undergo, transitive; come, intransitive; overcome, transitive, &c.

¹ In Sed maximum partern lacte atque pecore vivunt—Cæs. there is evidently an ellipsis of quod ad, or κατὰ.

ellipsis of a preposition in such constructions as Crinem soluta— Virg. i. e. secundum. Humeros amictus—Hor. i. e. circa.

Rule XXIX. Recordor, memini, reminiscor, and obliviscor, govern the accusative or genitive: as,

Recordor lectionem vel lectionis, I remember the lesson. Obliviscor injuriam vel injuria, I forget an injury.

- Note 1. That is, the above-mentioned verbs, denoting remembrance and forgetfulness, are followed by a genitive or an accusative: as, Meminisse laborum—Virg. Numeros memini—Virg. Memineram Paullum—Cic. Although it be evident by the last quotation, that memini may govern the accusative of the person, contrary to the opinion of Vossius, who, in his smaller grammar, asserts, that we can say only Memini Ciceronis, not Ciceronem; yet it is better to say Memento mei, nostri, than me, nos; and also Oblitus ne sis nostri, than nos. Oblivisci injurias—Cic. Est proprium stullitiæ aliorum vilia cernere, oblivisci suorum—Cic. &c.
- Note 2. Memini, when it signifies to make mention, is followed by a genitive, or de: as, Neque omninò hujus rei usquam meminit poeta—Quinct. Achillas, cujus supra meminimus—Cæs. De quibus multi meminerunt—Quinct.—Recordor, when it signifies to make mention, is, perhaps, construed with an accusative only: as, Externa libentiùs in tali re, quam domestica recordor—Cic.
- Note 3. Recordor and memini, denoting memorià tenco (I remember), are sometimes construed with de: as, Tu si meliore memorià es, velim scire ecquid de te recordere—Cic. De Planco memini—Cic.
- Note 4. The phrase Venit mihi in mentem, denoting remembering, is variously construed: as, Venit mihi in mentem have res, hujus rei, de hac re. Mihi veniebat in mentem ejus incommodum—Ter. Mihi solet venire in mentem illius temporis—Cic. In mentem venit de speculo—Plaut.
- Note 5. All these may be construed with the infinitive or a part of the sentence, instead of the respective cases: as, Virginem memini videre—Ter. Memini Antiochum sententià destitisse—Cic. Nec venit in mentem quorum consederis arvis—Virg. Or with an ablative with or without a preposition: as, Si cum animis vestris recordari C. Staleni vitam et naturam volueritis—Cic. Facilè memorià memini—Plaut.
- Note 6. The nature of this construction is variously explained by grammarians. Some contend, that, when recordor, memini, and reminiscor are followed by a genitive, this is governed by memoriam or recordationem understood; and that to Venit in mentem, memoria or recordatio is understood. Others contend that quod ad negotium, or in negotio, is understood to all. In regard to the accusative, they say, that, as these verbs are neuter, (Perizonius is inclined to let memini pass as active, in certain expres-

sions.) this case must be governed by ad, quod ad, nara understood. It has been doubted by some, whether the corresponding English verbs, I forget, I remember, with many others denoting mental operations, as I hear, I see, I feel, I understand, be active transitive verbs or not. This may be more a metaphysical than a grammatical question. That these verbs admit an accusative after them in Latin, English, and in other languages, is well ascertained; and, therefore, although in all of these operations the mind may not be active, but passive, and it may be difficult to point out what passes from the agent to the object; yet, in a grammatical point of view, there can be little impropriety in considering them as active transitive, and in asserting that the accusative following them is governed by them. speaking of such English verbs, it is observed by Dr. Crombie, (Etymol. and Synt. of the Eng. Lang. 2d Ed. p. 118,) that, if the point in question be metaphysically considered, it would be easy to demonstrate, that, though in sensation the mind be passive, in perception it is active.

ACTIVE VERBS GOVERNING ANOTHER CASE TOGETHER WITH THE ACCUSATIVE.

RULE XXX. Verbs of accusing, condemning, and acquitting, with the accusative of the person govern also the genitive of the crime: as,

Arguit me furti, He accuses me of theft.

Meipsum inertiæ condemno, I condemn myself of lazi-

Illum homicidii absolvunt, They acquit him of manslaughter.

Note 1. These verbs govern the accusative, according to Rule XXVIII, and are followed by a genitive of the crime or punishment. The former has been named their Direct Regimen; the latter, their Indirect.

To the rule belong verbs of

Accusing; accuso, ago, appello, arcesso, anquiro, arguo, coarguo, capto, increpo, increpito, urgeo, incuso, insimulo, interrogo, postulo, alligo, astringo, defero, compello: as, Qui alterum incusat probri, eum ipsum se intueri oportet—Plaut. Cum capitis anquisissent—Liv. Dolabellam repetundarum postulavit—Suet. &c.

Acquitting; absolvo, libero, purgo, to which perhaps solvo may be added: as, Judex absolvit eum injuriarum—Auct. ad Herenn. Liberavit ejus culpæ regem—Liv. Me omnium purgavi—Apul. Hanc tetram immanemque belluam... solvit subitò legum consul—Cic. Cum famulis operum solutis—Hor.

Condemning; damno, condemno, infamo, noto, to which may be added, convinco, prehendo, deprehendo, judico, plector: as, Sceleris condemnat generum suum—Cic. Vatem sceleris damnare—Ovid.

Te convinco inhumanitatis—Cic. Perduellionis se judicare C. Fulvio dixit—Liv. To these may be added such constructions as Quem ego capitis perdam—Plaut. Castigat se ipsum dementiæ—Lactant. Me capitis periclitatum memini—Apul.

Note 2. The genitive of the crime may be put in the ablative with de, chiefly after accuso, arguo, defero, postulo, appello, absolvo, damno, condemno, purgo: as, Accusare de negligentiá—Cic. De eo crimine quo de arguatur—Cic. Qui de perduellione anquirerent—Liv. De proditione appellatus—Liv. In is sometimes found: as, In quo te accuso—Cic.; and a or ab after libero: as, A scelere liberati sumus—Cic.

Note 3. The crime or punishment is sometimes put in the ablative without a preposition's being expressed, after absolvo, libero, damno, condemno, &c.: as, Consulem regni suspicione absolverent—Liv. Nemo sapientiam paupertate damnavit—Senec. Damnabis tu votis—Virg. also voti—Nep. Liv.—To the preceding verbs may be added, accuso, alligo, anquiro, appello, arcesso, arguo, arripio, astringo, compello, -as, insimulo, multo, noto, obligo, obstringo, postulo, teneor. Crimen quo argui posset—Nep. Hoc crimine compellabatur—Nep. Teneri pænå—Cic. &c.

Note 4. Accuso, incuso, insimulo, sometimes take two accusatives: as, Si id me non accusas—Plaut. Quæ me incusaveras—Ter. Sic me insimulare falsum facinus—Plaut. One of these accusatives, which is generally id, illud, quod, or the like, is governed by circa or quod ad understood.

Note 5. The nouns crimen and caput are either put in the genitive, or in the ablative generally without a preposition: as, Hominem tantorum criminum postulasset—Apul. An commotæ crimine mentis absolves hominem—Hor. Capitis damnatus est—Suet. Nec ob eam rem capite damnarer—Cic. Capite plectere or punire, not capitis; also Capite anquiri, damnari, plecti, without a preposition. Argui de crimine is attributed to Cicero, but such words as crimen and scelus, being general, that is, not referring to any specific crime, are used without a preposition. Multo is construed with an ablative, the preposition being always omitted: as, Multare pænå, pecuniå, &c. 1

Note 6. The genitive, strictly speaking, is not governed by the verbs mentioned in this rule, but by some ablative understood, such as pænå, crimine, scelere, peccato, actione, multá, nomine, re,

¹ Valla and others say that these words, altero, neutro, utro, utroque, ambobus (to which Linacer adds superlatives, and some other words, as nullo, alio, omnibus) ought to be used in the ablative only: thus, Tenetúrne sacrilegii, an integue, vel ambobus, vel neutro? Also Accusesne hunc furti, an sacrilegii, an incesti, an omnibus, vel, an nullo, vel, an maximo ex iis; and not utriusque, amborum, omnium, &c. The Eton Grammar has a similar observation, borrowed, probably, from Linacer or Lily; but, since neither is supported by examples from the writings of the antients, they are entitled to little consideration,

causa, erga: as, Accuso te (crimine) furti. And these, or other ablatives, are governed by de or in, expressed or understood.

Note 7. The following verbs of accusing, &c. are not construed with the genitive, calumnior, carpo, corripio, criminor, culpo, excuso, mulcto, punio, reprehendo, sugillo, taxo, traduco, vitupero: as, Potentiam alicujus invidiose criminari—Cic. Also, Excuso tibi tarditatem meam, Multo te exsilio, and not Excuso me tili tarditatis, Multo te exsilii. This construction is found even with some of the verbs which have a genitive or ablative: as, Ejus avaritiam perfidiamque accusárat—Nep.—Ago tecum furti, injuriarum, and not Ago te furti, injuriarum, is a peculiar mode of expression.

Note 8. Where there is a variety of constructions, authority is the only criterion. It may, however, be better to say Increpare alicujus avaritiam, Notare incuriam alicujus, Castigare suam dementiam, than Increpare aliquem avaritiæ—Suet. Notare aliquem incuriæ—Gell. Castigare se dementiæ—Lactant. Liberare aliquem culpd, Purgare se apud aliquem, vel alicui de re alique, may be better than Liberare aliquem culpæ—Liv. Purgare dicti factique hostilis civitatem—Liv.—It is to be observed also that Urgeri malè administratæ provinciæ, Interrogari facti alicujus, Infamari temeritatis, Plecti falsæ insimulationis, Perdi capitis, Captare impudicitiæ, Damnatus longi laboris, although they may be found in their respective authors, Tacitus, Seneca, Apulcius, Plautus, &c., are by no means to be imitated.

VERBS OF ADMONISHING.

Note 9. Under this rule, (or Rule XXXII,) may be mentioned, moneo, admoneo, commoneo, commonefacio, which with the accusative of a person take the genitive of the thing: as, Grammaticos officii sui commonemus—Quinct.

Note 10. Instead of the genitive, they sometimes take an ablative with de: as, De quo vos admonui—Cic.

Note 11. They have sometimes two accusatives: as, Sed eos hoc moneo—Cic. Passively, the latter: as, Multa in extis admonemur—Cic. One of these is generally a pronoun, as hoc, id, quod, &c. or some word referring to number or quantity, as unum, duo, tria, multa, nihil, nonnihil. Ovid, however, writes, At virgo scit se non falsa moneri—Met. x. 427. The accusative of the thing is governed by some preposition understood, as, quod ad, or the like. To verbs having this construction some add hortor and cohortor: as, Quod te jamdudum hortor—Cic. Pauca pro tempore milites hortatus—Sall. But these two are much more frequently construed with ad: as, Hortor te ad virtutem, Cohortor ad pacém.

Note 12. The genitive of the thing after verbs of advising is supposed to be governed by causa, or in re, or negotio.

Note 13. These verbs are construed with the infinitive, or the

subjunctive with ut or ne: as, Pietas erga parentes officium conservare monet-Cic. Sed te illud moneo, ut te ante compares, quotidieque meditere, resistendum esse iracundiæ-Cic. Immortalia ne speres, monet annus-Hor.

Rule XXXI. Verbs of comparing, giving, declaring, and taking away, govern the dative with the accusative: as,

Comparo Virgilium Homero, I compare Virgil to Homer. Suum cuique tribuito. Narras fabulam surdo.

Give every man his own. You tell a story to a deaf man.

Eripuit me morti,

He rescued me from death.

Note 1. That is, verbs signifying comparison, acquisition, or giving, loss, or taking away, refusal, application, information, and the like, in addition to their direct regimen of the accusative, govern also the dative; thus verbs of

Comparing; comparo, compono, confero, æquo, æquiparo; also verbs of Preferring or Postponing; antepono, antefero, præpono, præfero; postpono, posthabeo, postfero, &c.: as, Parvis componere magna-Virg. Posthabui tamen illorum mea seria ludo-Virg.

Giving; do, tribuo, largior, præbeo, ministro, suggero, suppedito; also verbs of Restoring; as, reddo, restituo, retribuo, rependo, remetior; of Acquiring; quæro, acquiro, paro, pario; of Promising; promitto, polliceor, recipio, spondeo; also debeo, solvo, assero, vindico, mitto, relinguo, and innumerable others; thus, Amorique nostro plusculum etiam, quam concedet veritas, largiare—Cic. Quæ tibi promitto-Cic. &c.

Declaring; narro, dico, memoro, loquor, nuncio, refero, declaro, aperio, expono, explico, significo, indico, monstro, ostendo, &c.; of Denying; nego, inficior; of Confessing; fateor, confiteor, &c.: as, Postquam diem operi dixerat-Cic. Neget quis carmina Gallo -Virg.

Taking away; aufero, adimo, eripio, eximo, demo, surripio, detraho, excutio, extorqueo, &c.: as, Mea mihi ademerunt--Cic.

To these may be added a great number of active verbs compounded with ad, in, ob, præ, sub; as addo, adfero, adjicio, adjungo, infigo, injungo, inscribo, insero, irrogo, oppono, offero, offundo, objicio, præcludo, præficio, præparo, præseribo, subdo, subjugo, submitto, suppono. In short, most active verbs may govern the dative with the accusative, when together with the thing done, is also expressed the object to or for which it is done: as, Facio tibi injuriam. Doce mihi filium. Miscere alicui mulsum-Cic. &c.

Note 2. The accusative is sometimes suppressed: as, Ignoscere alteri; i. e. culpam or delictum. Detrahere alicui; i. e. laudem. Nubere alicui; i. e. perhaps, se or vultum.

Note 3. Comparo, compono, and confero, are often found with cum and an ablative: as, Ut hominem cum homine comparetisCic. Dicta cum factis componere—Sall. Conferte hanc pacem cum illo bello—Cic. We also find Comparare res inter se—Cic. Ne comparandus hic quidem ad illum est—Ter. This last construction is said to be used, when there is no comparison between the objects, when the difference between them is very great; in any other case, illi or cum illo.

Note 4. Verbs of Taking away, instead of the dative, have often the ablative, with a, ab, de, e, ex: as, Auferre ab aliquo triginta minas—Ter. Eripite nos ex miseriis—Cic. De magnis divitiis si quid demas—Plaut. The preposition is sometimes suppressed: as, Sudque eripere æde Deam—Ovid. Vaginaque eripit ensem—Virg. The following verbs have commonly an ablative, and generally with the preposition expressed; abduco, deduco, decutio, deripio, detraho, eximo, extraho; also segrego, sejungo, sepono, semoveo, removeo, submoveo.

Note 5. Many verbs vary their construction: as, Afflare alicui venenum—Auct. ad Herenn. aliquem veneno—Virg. Ovid. Aspergere labem alicui—Cic. aliquem labe—Cic. Donare alicui rem—Hor. aliquem re—Cic. Induere sibi vestem—Cic. se veste—Cic. Intercludere alicui commeatum—Plaut. aliquem commeatu—Cæs. Prohibere alicui rem—Plaut. aliquem re—Cic. Committere se alicui—Cic. in fidem alicujus—Ter. aliquem cum aliquo—Tac. omnes inter se—Suet. Imponere onus alicui—Cic. in aliquem—Plaut. Accingere se operi, and ad opus—Virg. Liv. Admovere turres muro—Liv. aliquid ad corpus—Cic. Adscribere aliquem civitati, in civitatem, et civitate—Cic. Assumere aliquid sibi—Cic. aliquem in societatem—Liv.—Mittere, scribere, epistolam alicui, or ad aliquem. Imprimere aliquid animo, in animum, in animo. Incidere æri, in æs, in ære. Intendere telum alicui, et in aliquem. Rescribere literis and ad literas—with innumerable others.

RULE XXXII. Verbs of asking and teaching admit two accusatives, the first of a person, and the second of a thing: as,

Posce Deum veniam, Beg pardon of God. He taught me grammar.

Note 1. To this rule are generally referred, Celo: as; Celo te hanc rem—Ter.

Verbs of Asking or Entreating; as rogo, interrogo, oro, exoro, obsecro, precor, percontor, posco, reposco, flagito: thus, Rogo te nummos—Mart. Te hoc obsecrat—Cic. Horace construes lacesso, in this sense, with two accusatives: as, Nihil supra deos lacessa—Car. II. 18. 11.

Verbs of Teaching; as, doceo, edoceo, dedoceo, erudio: thus, Te literas doceam--Cic. Te leges præceptaque erudiit-Stat. Damnosasque (eum) erudit artes-Ovid. This last is a poetical con-

struction.

To these have been commonly added verbs of Arraying; as

vestio, induo, cingo, accingo; but, although the poets may write Induitur vestem, Quidlibet indutus, Cingitur ferrum, and the like, it is not to be thence inferred that Induit se vestem, Cingit se ferrum are correct. Such verbs have generally the ablative of the thing without a preposition. Exuo and induo have frequently the accusative of a thing and the dative of a person.

Note 2. The construction of the preceding verbs is often varied: as, Id Alcibiadi celari non potuit—Nep. Bassus noster me de hoc libro celavit—Cic.

Note 3. Verbs of Asking often change the accusative of the person into the ablative with a, ab, or abs: as, Non debebam abs te has literas poscere—Cic. Veniam oremus ab ipso—Virg.—Peto, exigo, quæro, scitor, sciscitor are always followed by a preposition: as, A te peto—Cic. Gradere et scitabere ab ipso—Ovid. Percontor, quæro, scitor, sciscitor are generally construed with ex: as, Epicuri ex Velleio sciscitabar sententiam—Cic. Also, Quæro de te, for abs or ex te—Liv. Peto abs te, never ex te.

Note 4. Verbs of Teaching frequently change the accusative of the thing into the ablative with de: as, De itinere hostium senatum edocet—Sall. This is the case, chiefly when they denote to warn, or to give information of. We also find Doctus ad legem—Cic. Erudire ad modestiam—Cic. Erudire aliquem in jure civili—Cic. Doctus, eruditus, literis Græcis—Cic.; but, scarcely, if ever, Doceo te de grammatica.

Note 5. Instruo, formo, instituo, informo aliquem artibus, are generally used without a preposition. We also find In hoc sit instructus—Quinct. and Instruere ignorantiam alicujus—Plin. Instituere aliquem ad lectionem—Quinct. ad turpitudines—Cic. artem aliquam—Cic. Also, Formare ad studium—Virg. mentem studiis—Hor. studia alicujus—Quinct.—Imbuo aliquem artibus vel præceptis; seldom in or ab artibus.

Note 6. Other verbs are sometimes found with two accusatives: as, Argentum, quod habes, condonamus te—Ter. Scin' quid ego te volebam—Ter. Many verbs are sometimes used in this way, such as cogo, circumduco, defraudo, eludo, emungo, interverto, juvo, adjuvo, adjuto, objurgo, remitto; and it is observed, that the accusative of the thing is generally some pronoun, or word of number or quantity; thus, Quid non mortalia pectora cogis?—Virg. Id, amabo, adjuta me—Ter. Multa prius de salute sua Pomtinum obtestatus—Sall.

Note 7. Many verbs may be found with two accusatives referring to the same object: as, Præsta te virum—Cic. Africam Græci Libyam appellavére—Plin. Petit hanc Saturnia munus—Ovid. Many such constructions may be referred to apposition, or to an ellipsis of esse.

Note 8. The accusative of the thing, in this Rule, is not, strictly speaking, governed by the verb, but by ad, quod ad, secundum,

circa, ob, understood: thus in Rogare patrem veniam, veniam may be governed by ad, circa, or propter. Also, Objurgabat hac me pater; i. e. ob hæc. In such expressions as Si quid me voles, Quæ te aliquid jubeant, we may suppose either a similar ellipsis, or that of facere. Thus also, Doceo te (quod ad) literas, or, perhaps, scire literas. In such expressions as Trajicit fluvium exercitum, it is evident that the one accusative is governed by trans in composition. The third accusative in Objurgare hac me noctes et dies-Plaut. is evidently governed by per understood.

Rule XXXIII. The passives of such active verbs as govern two cases, do still retain the last of them: as,

Accusor furti. I am accused of theft.

Virgilius comparatur Homero, Virgil is compared to Homer.

Doceor grammaticam,

I am taught grammar.

Note 1. That is,

The passives of verbs of Accusing, Condemning, and Acquitting, retain the genitive or ablative: as, Damnatus est ambitûs-Cic. Absoluti sunt majestatis-Cic. Arguimur crimine pigritiæ -Mart. The passives of verbs of Admonishing likewise retain the genitive, sometimes the accusative: as, Commonefiat sceleris -Cic. Multa in extis monemur-Cic.

The passives of verbs of Comparing, Giving, Declaring, and Taking away, retain the dative: as, Parva magnis conferentur-Cic. Res nunciatur hostibus--Cæs. Eripitur nobis puella--Pro-

pert.

Celor, and the passives of verbs of Asking and Teaching, retain the accusative of the thing: as, Nosne hoc celatos tam diu?-Ter. Celor, the dative too: as, Id Alcibiadi celari non potuit-Nep. Is rogatus est sententiam-Liv. Segetes alimentaque debita dives poscebatur humus-Ovid. Motus doceri gaudet Ionicos matura virgo-Hor. All these accusatives are governed by quod ad (κατά) understood.

Verbs passive of Clothing, such as induor, amicior, cingor, accingor; also exuor, discingor, and their participles, although their actives do not govern two accusatives, have often, according to the poets, an accusative of the thing put on, but with others an ablative: as, Induitur faciem cultumque Diana-Ovid. Non canas vestita nives-Claudian. Sometimes also an accusative of the thing covered: as, Pinuque caput præcinctus acuta-Ovid.-Veste Arabica induitur-Curt. Cingitur gladio-Liv. Exutus omnibus fortunis-Tac, Velor, tegor, calceor, coronor, spolior, are. generally construed with the ablative. In all these the accusative is governed by ad, quod ad, or per, understood; the ablative, by cum. In the same manner are to be explained, Magnam partem in his occupati sunt .- Cic. Omnia Mercurio similis vocemque, &c. -Virg. Expleri mentem nequit-Virg. Nodoque sinus collecta

fluentes-Virg.; with many other similar instances found among the poets chiefly 1.

Note 2. It deserves observation, that, in conformity with this rule, whatever is the accusative after the active verb, must be the nominative to it in the passive voice; thus, Tibi librum do; Tibi liber datur. Narras fabulam surdo; Surdo fabula narratur. Capitis eum condemnarunt; Capitis ilie est condemnatus. Pateram vino implevit; Vino patera est impleta. And where there are two accusatives, that of the person becomes the nominative: thus, Pueros grammaticam docebat; Pueri docebantur grammaticam.

On the subject of this rule, I am indebted to the critical discernment of the friend to whom this little work is dedicated, for the following observations. "The rule of Ruddiman (he observes) is extremely vague. It contains no precise information; nor have I seen any Grammar, in which the principle seems rightly understood, or clearly elucidated. In respect, indeed, to the phraseologies, which may be comprehended under this, or a more correct rule, there are few modern Latin writers who are not chargeable with repeated violations of that usage, which Cicero, Cæsar, and Livy uniformly adopt. Thus we read Ut equidem persuasus sim-Xenoph. Mem. Leunclav. p. 729. Me persuaso-Eurip. Phæniss. King, p. 464. Persuasus vates mendacia locutus sit-Oed. Tyr. Johnson, p. 534. Hoc mirum videtur, persuaderi quosdam potuisse—Xenoph. Mem. c. 11, 1, Simpson². These and similar incorrect expressions might have been avoided, had the writers attended to this simple rule, That whatever is put in the accusative case after the verb, must be the nominative to it in the passive voice, while the other case is retained under the government of the verb, and cannot become its nominative. Thus, · I persuade you to this or of this,' Persuadeo hoc tili. Here, the person persuaded is expressed in the dative case, and cannot, therefore, be the nominative to the passive verb. We must, therefore, say Hoc tibi persuadetur, 'You are persuaded of this;' not Tu persuaderis. Thus also Cæsar. His persuaderi, ut diutiùs morarentur, non poterat. 'He trusted me with this affair,' or 'He believed me in this,' Hoc mihi credidit .- Passively, Hoc mihi creditum est. 'I told you this,' Hoc tibi dixi. 'You were told this,' Hoc tibi dictum est⁵, not Tu dictus es. Is then the phraseology

¹ This rule is applicable also to the passives of verbs of Valuing, which retain the genitives magni, pavoi, nihili, &c. To the passives of verbs of Filling, Loading, Binding, Depriving, &c. which retain the ablative. All these are to be noticed hereafter.

² To the examples here adduced may be added, Si persuasus auditor fuerit—Auct. ad Herenn. 1, 6. Nihil erat difficile persuadere persuasis mori—Jus-

tin. II, 11. Jamdudum persuasus erit-Ovid. Art. III. 679.

³ I may be permitted to observe, in addition to the remarks with which I have been favoured by this ingenious critic, that it is the more necessary to attend to this rule, and to these distinctions, as the idioms of the two languages do not always concur. Thus, Hoc tibidictum est means not only "This was told to you," but "You were told this." Liber mihi a patre promissus est means

Tu dictus es inadmissible? Certainly not: but, when this expression is employed, tu denotes the subject of discourse, or the person of whom, not the person to whom, information is given. Thus, Ille dicitur esse vir sapiens. Here, ille is the subject spoken of, not the person to whom any thing is told. Thus also Credo tibi, I believe you, that is, I give credit to what you say, in which sense we must say in the passive voice, Tibi creditur, and not Tu crederis; for the latter of these two expressions would imply not that credit is given to the words of the person, but that he is the object or the subject of belief. In short, it is to be remembered that nothing but that, which is in the accusative after the active verb, whether denoting a person or a thing, can be the nominative to the verb in the passive voice. Hence it is, that, if a verb does not govern the accusative in the active voice, it can have no passive, unless impersonally; thus we say Resisto tibi, and cannot, therefore, say Tu resisteris, but Tibi resistitur.—It is to be observed, however, that the poets have frequently transgressed this rule. Thus Virgil, speaking of Cassandra, says Credita Teucris, where Cassandra denoting the person believed, or to whom credit is given, and which, after the active verb, would be put in the dative case, is made the nominative to the verb in the passive voice. If we consult, however, the purest models of Latin prose, Cicero and Cæsar, or Livy and Sallust, we shall never find this phraseology. Nor is the rule here given, and to which the practice of the best prose writers is strictly conformable, the mere result of arbitrary usage. It contributes to perspicuity. If Ego credor be employed to signify, not only that I, as a person speaking, am believed, but also, as a person spoken of, obscurity or ambiguity must frequently follow. I have observed also, that no verb can be regularly used in the passive voice, unless it govern the accusative in the active voice. The practice of the purest Classics justifies this observation. The poets are less scrupulous. Thus, Horace says Bactra regnata Cyro, where the verb regno, which does not govern the accusative case in the active voice, admits a nominative as a regular passive verb. Thus also Gentes regnantur—Tac. The best prose writers never employ this phraseology."

RULE XXXIV. The price of a thing is put in the ablative, with any verb: as,

Emi librum duobus assibus,

I bought a book for two shillings.

Vendidit hic auro patriam,

This man sold his country for gold.

Demosthenes docuit talento,

Demosthenes taught for a talent.

both, "A book was promised (to) me by my father," and "I was promised a book." Is primit rogatus est sententiam, "He was first asked for his opinion," and "An opinion was first asked of him," in which last the accusative of the person becomes, in Latin, the nominative in the passive voice.

- Note 1. That is, not only verbs which plainly denote Buying or Selling, but those likewise which refer thereto, are followed by an ablative: as, Viginti talentis unam orationem Isocrates vendidit-Plin, Non emam vitiosa nuce-Plant. Piscinæ ædificantur magno-Varro. Multo sanguine et vulneribus ea Pænis victoria stetit-Liv.
- Note 2. The verb valeo, when it refers to Price, has generally the ablative; as Ita ut scrupulum valeret sestertiis vicenis-Plin. It is seldom found with an accusative; Denarii dicti, quòd denos æris valebant; quinarii quòd quinos-Varro.
- Note 3. Magno, permagno, parvo, paululo, minimo, plurimo, are often found without their substantive: as, Frumentum suum quam plurimo venditurus-Cic. To these are added plure, vili, nimio: as, Plure venit-Cic. To all these pretio, are, or the like, is understood. It is sometimes expressed: as, Vendere aliquid parvo pretio-Cic.1
- Note 4. The ablative is not, strictly speaking, governed by the verb, but by pro understood: as, Dum pro argenteis decem aureus unus valeret-Liv. Emere ad viginti minas, Ad eam summam emere, Ad eam summam offerre, are mentioned by Johnson, who attributes the first two to Cicero.

Rule XXXV. These genitives, tanti, quanti, pluris, minoris, are excepted: as,

> Quanti constitit? How much cost it? Asse et pluris,

A shilling and more.

- Note 1. This is merely an exception to the preceding rule. To the above-mentioned genitives may be added their compounds quanticunque, quantiquanti, tantidem, and also majoris: as, Non concupisces ad libertatem quanticunque pervenire-Senec. Multo majoris alapæ mecum veneunt-Phædr.
- Note 2. If the substantive be expressed, these words must be put in the ablative: as, Authensa illa quam tanto pretio mercatus est—Cic. Pretio minore redimendi captivos copia—Liv. This remark does not refer to tantidem, which has no ablative.—There is a distinction between Emi equum magno or parvo pretio and Emi equum magni or parvi pretii, the former denoting the price of the horse, the latter his intrinsic or real worth.
- To these ablatives some grammarians add multo, pauco, dimidio, duplo, paulo, maximo, and immenso; but they are without authorities. In the following instances, Multo minoris vendidit quam tu-Cic. and Ambulatiuncula propè dimidio minoris constabit isto loco-Cic., multo and dimidio are the ablatives of defect, rather than of price. Caro empta, attributed to Quinctilian, is a doubtful reading, care being most probably the word intended. But Diomedes does not hesitate to consider caro and vili as adverbs of valuing. Horace writes Luscinias soliti impenso prandere coemptas-Sat. ii. S. 245. arc being understood.

Note 3. To the genitives magni, pluris, tanti, quanti, &c. æris pretio or pondere, or, inversely, pretii or ponderis ære, is said to be understood.

Rule XXXVI. Verbs of Valuing, besides the accusative which they govern, admit such genitives as these-magni, parvi, nihili: as,

Æstimo te magni, I value you much.

Note 1. That is, verbs of Valuing admit after them, besides tanti, quanti, pluris, minoris, the following also, magni, parvi, maximi, minimi, plurimi, with assis, nihili, nauci, flocci, pili, teruncii, hujus, pensi.

Note 2. The verbs of Valuing are astimo, existimo, duco, facio, habeo, pendo, puto, taxo, to which may be added sum and fio, taken for astimor, which are followed by the genitive of value, but which do not take the accusative: as, Magni astimabat pecuniam—Cic. Quis Carthaginiensium pluris fuit Annibale consilio—Cic. Ut quanti quisque se ipse faciat, tanti fiat ab amicis—Cic.—It is to be observed, that pili, teruncii, and hujus are construed with facio only; nauci, with facio and habeo; assis, with facio and astimo; nihili, with facio and pendo; flocci, with facio, pendo, and existimo. Pensi is generally preceded by non, neque, or nihil: as, Neque id quibus modis assequeretur, quidquam pensi habebat—Sall. Nec pensi duxerat—Val. Max.

Note 3. To this rule may be referred the phrases Æqui bonique facio, or Æqui boni facio, and Boni consulo: as, Isthuc æqui bonique facio—Ter. Hoc munus, rogo, boni consulas—Senec.

Note 4. Æstimo sometimes takes these ablatives, magno, permagno, parvo, nihilo, nonnihilo: as, Data magno æstimas, accepta parvo—Senec. Quia sit nonnihilo æstimandum—Cic.

Note 5. The substantive understood to the adjectives magni, parvi, &c. is pretii, æris, ponderis, momenti, or the like; and the construction may be thus supplied: Æstimo te magni, i. e. esse hominem magni pretii, or pro homine magni pretii. Æstimat pecuniam parvi, i. e. esse rem parvi momenti, or pro re parvi momenti. In like manner, Isthuc æqui bonique facio, i. e. facio isthuc remæqui bonique hominis, or animi, or negotii. Consulo boni, i. e. interpretor esse boni animi or viri munus or factum. And nearly in a similar way, Quæ ille universa naturali quodam bono fecit lucri—Nep. i. e. fecit rem lucri.——Pro nihilo habeo, puto, duco, are common phrases: as, Istam adoptionem pro nihilo esse habendam—Cic. Cicero uses Quæ visa sunt pro nihilo; but here there may be some ellipsis, of haberi perhaps.

Rule XXXVII. Verbs of Plenty and Scarceness for the most part govern the ablative: as,

Abundat divitiis, He abounds in riches. Caret omni culpâ, He has no fault.

Note 1. To this rule belong verbs of

Plenty: as abundo, exubero, redundo, scateo, offluo, circumfluo,

diffluo, superfluo: as, Amore abundas Antipho-Ter.

Want or Scarcity: as, careo, egeo, indigeo, vaco (to want), with deficior and destituor: thus, Carere debet omnivitio--Cic. Ratione deficitur--Cic.

- Note 2. Egeo and indigeo frequently take the genitive: as, Ut medicinæ egeamus—Cic. Non tam artis indigent, quàm laboris—Cic. Also, among the more antient writers, scateo, and careo: as, Terra scatet ferarum—Lucret. Tui carendum erat—Ter. Lucilius has Abundemus rerum, but the genitive is more frequent after abundans. Sometimes careo and egeo take the accusative: as, Id careo—Plaut. Multa egeo—Gell.
- Note 3. The ablative is not, strictly speaking, governed by the verb, but by some preposition understood, as a, ab, de, ex, or in. After some verbs it is frequently expressed: as, Hac a custodibus classium loca maxime vacabant—Cas. Deficior prudens artis ab arte meâ—Ovid. And when any of these verbs are followed by the genitive, some ablative, such as re, negotio, causâ, praesentiâ, ope, copiâ, or the like, with a preposition, is understood: thus, Careo tui, i. e. ope or praesentiâ.

To this rule may be referred

Verbs of Filling, Loading, Binding, Depriving, Clothing, and some others, which, with the accusative, have also an ablative case: thus verbs of

Filling; as, impleo, compleo, expleo, repleo, saturo, obsaturo, satio, refercio, ingurgito, dito, and the like: thus, Implevit mero pateram—Virg.

Loading; as onero, cumulo, premo, opprimo, obruo: Unloading: as levo, exonero: thus, Naves onerant auro—Virg. Te fasce levabo

-Virg.

Binding; as astringo, alligo, devincio, impedio, irretio, illaqueo, &c. Loosing; as solvo, exsolvo, libero, laxo, expedio: thus, Servitutem astringam testimonio sempiterno—Cic. Solvit se Teucria luctu—Virg.

Depriving; as privo, nudo, orbo, spolio, fraudo, emungo: thus, Nudavit ab ea parte aciem equestri auxilio—Liv. Add also, vacuo,

evacuo, exhaurio, exinanio, depleo.

Clothing; as vestio, amicio, induo, cingo, tego, velo, corono, calceo; and their contraries, exuo, discingo: thus, Sepulchrum veprilus

¹ The inexperienced learner should be careful to distinguish between such phrases as Levabo te fasce, in which levo denotes to ease or disburden, and the ablative belongs to this rule; and such as Sæpe suis opibus inopian eorum publicam levavit—Nep. Auxilioque levare viros—Virg. Levaverant animos religione—Liv. in which levo signifies to help or relieve, and the ablatives do not belong to this rule, but are to be referred to those of cause, manner, and instrument. In numberless instances, however, such is the nature of the verb or the phrase, that it is not easy to distinguish the ablative of the one rule, from that of the other.

vestire—Cic. Teque his exue monstris—Ovid.—To these may be added many others, such as muto, dono, munero, remunero, communico, pasco, beo, impertior, dignor, officio, prosequor, assequor, consequor, insequor, spargo, incesso, insector, oblecto: with verbs of Mixing, as misceo, permisceo, tempero; such verbs as orno, honoro, honesto, decoro, venusto, colo, excolo, dehonesto, dedecoro, fædo, inquino, polluo: verbs of Teaching; as formo, informo, doceo, erudio, instruo, imbuo: verbs denoting Excess, as antecedo, antecello, excello, supero, &c.: verbs of Bounding, Measuring, and Recompensing; as finio, definio, termino, metior, dimetior, penso, compenso—with numberless other verbs which, without an accusative, admit an ablative of the cause, manner, or instrument, as possum, polleo, valeo, vivo, &c.

Note 1. Impleo, compleo, and expleo sometimes take the genitive: as, Ne ita omnia Tribuni potestatis suæ implerent—Liv. Erroris illos et dementiæ complebo—Plaut. Animum explêsse juvabit ultricis flammæ—Virg. And, among the more antient writers, also saturo and obsaturo: as, Hæ res vitæ me saturant—Plaut. Istius obsaturabere—Ter.

Note 2. The verb induo is variously construed: as, Ex ejus spoliis sibi et torquem et cognomen induit—Cic. Pomis se fertilis arbos induerat—Virg.

Note 3. Verbs of Liberating are often followed by a or ex: as, Arcem ab incendio liberavi—Cic. Solvere lelluam ex catenis—Auct. ad Herenn. Verbs of Clothing are sometimes followed by a or ab, among the poets: as, Geticis si cingar ab armis—Ovid.

Note 4. The preposition cum is sometimes expressed after prosequor: as, Decedentem cum favore ac laudibus prosecuti sunt—Liv.

Note 5. The ablative after muto is the thing taken in exchange: as, Muto librum pecunia; but, by the figure Hypallage, it may be Muto pecuniam libro!.

Note 6. Many verbs vary their construction: as, Universos frumento donavit—Nep. and Prædam militibus donat—Cæs. Aspergere sale carnes, or Aspergere salem carnibus—Plin. Impertire aliquem salute—Ter., or olicui solutem—Cic. Communicare rem aliquam cum aliquo; seldom, aliquem re aliqua; and never rem aliquam alicui. Cum altero rem communicavit—Cic. Communicabo te semper mensá med—Plaut. Abdicare magistratum—Sall. Se magistratu—Cic.

Note 7. The accusative is governed by Rule XXVIII; the ablative by some preposition, or it may be frequently referred to that of cause, manner, or instrument, which also is governed by some preposition.

¹ The preposition is sometimes expressed after muto: as, Mutare bellum propace—Sall. Cum pedibusque manus, cum longis brachia mutat cruribus—Ovid.

RULE XXXVIII. Utor, abutor, fruor, fungor, potior, vescor, govern the ablative: as,

Utitur fraude, He uses deceit.
Abutitur libris, He abuses books.

- Note 1. That is, the above-mentioned verbs, to which may be added nitor, innitor, epulor, nascor, creor, glorior, lætor, delector, gaudeo, vivo, victito, fido, confido, exulto, sto', consto, consisto, cedo, supersedeo, laboro, are followed by an ablative: as, Utere sorte tud—Virg. Pace frui—Cic. Functus est munere—Cic. Filio nititur—Cic. Glande vescuntur—Cic. Sunt, qui piscibus, atque ovis avium vivere existimantur—Cæs. Gaudet patientia duris—Lucan. Fortes creantur fortibus—Hor. &c. To these may be added the compounds, deutor, once used in Cornelius Nepos for abutor, and perfruor, defungor, perfungor. Fido, confido, innitor, and cedo, have been noticed under Rule XXVII.
- Note 2. Under this, or the preceding rule, are usually enumerated, assuesco, amplector, comprehendo, conflictor, periclitor, pascor², which are found with an ablative of a thing: as, Assuescere labore—Cic. Complecti benevolentid—Cic. Such ablatives may be referred to those of cause, &c. Pascor, deponent, often takes the accusative: as, Pascuntur silvas—Virg.
- Note 3. Potior, fungor, vescor, epulor, sometimes take the accusative: as, Potiri summan imperii—Nep. Hominum officia fungi—Tac. Qui regnum adeptus coepit vesci singulas—Phædr. Pullos epulari—Plin. Also, among the more antient writers, utor, abutor, fruor: as, Cætera quæque volumus uti—Plaut. Operam abutitur—Ter. Ingenium frui—Ter.
- Note 4. Potior frequently admits the genitive: as, Potiri regni—Cic. urbis—Sall. hostium—Sall. Potiri rerum, and not res, nor rebus, is always used in the sense of to rule or govern: as, Dum civitas Atheniensium rerum potita est—Cic.
- Note 5. With some of the verbs a preposition is frequently expressed; as consto, laboro, nitor, glorior: thus, Cum constemus ex animo et corpore—Cic. Laborare ex peditus, ex renibus—Cic. Cujus in vitá nitebatur salus civitatis—Cic. In virtute gloriamur—Cic.

² Depaseo and depaseor have the accusative only: as, Lururiem segetum tenera depaseit in herba—Virg. Miscros morsu depaseitur artus—Virg.

¹ Some, led away by the English idiom, according to which we say "To stand to an agreement," have supposed that it is the dative which follows sto; but this is a mistake, as may be seen in the following examples; Uterque censor censor is opinione standum non putavit—Cic. Etsi priori federe staretur—Liv. Hence, also, Stare decreto, promissis, conventis, conditionibus, which are not datives, and, in Ovid, Stemus, ait, pacto. Maneo seems to be sometimes construed in a similar way; as, Tu modo promissis maneas—Virg. At tu dictis, Albane, maneres—Virg. But Cicero expresses the preposition: as, Maner in conditione atque pacto; and, in like manner, Postquam in co quod convenerat, non manebatur—Mela.

Note 6. Ovid has once construed the active creo with an ablative; without expressing the preposition; but, in general, among prose writers, at least, creo, creor, nascor, and other verbs of descent, as orior, gigno, genero, procreo, are followed by a preposition expressed: as, Principium exstinctum nec ipsum ab alio renascetur, nec a se aliud creabit—Cic. Generari et nasci a principibus fortuitum est—Tac.

Note 7. The ablative after the others is likewise governed by a preposition. After utor, fruor, vescor, epulor, victito, nascor, creor, de or ex is understood; after potior, a or ab; with sto, periclitor, in, &c. The genitive is governed by such words as re, negotio, imperio, or the like, understood.

OF IMPERSONAL VERBS.

Rule XXXIX. An impersonal verb governs the dative: as,

Expedit reipublicæ, Licet nemini peccare, No man is allowed to sin.

Note 1. Thus also, Non cuivis homini contingit adire Corinthum—Hor. Liceat mihi vera referre—Ovid.

Note 2. Along with the dative is generally joined an infinitive mood, or part of a sentence, which is supposed to supply the place of a nominative to the verb: as, Peccare licet nemini—Cic. Omnibus bonis expedit salvam esse rempublicam—Cic. In the last, the words salvam esse rempublicam, equivalent to salus reipublicæ, or their representative hoc, are as a subject or nominative to expedit. Quoniam tecum ut essem non contigit—Cic. in which the dative is understood, and the preceding words supply the place of the nominative.

Note 3. The dative is often suppressed: as, Faciat quod lubet—Ter. i. e. sibi.

Note 4. Id, hoc, illud, quod, multum, &c., may be prefixed as a nominative to some impersonals: as, Aliquid peccatur vitio pracipientium—Senec. Sin tibi id minus libebit—Cic. The plural number is in this manner admissible in certain words: as, Quo in genere multa peccantur—Cic. Catera item qua cuique libuissent—Suet.

Note 5. In the following instances, the infinitive mood of impersonal verbs supplies the place of a noun: as Terra multifariàm pluvisse nunciatum est—Liv. Non potest accedi—Cic.

Note 6. Conducit and expedit, instead of the dative of a thing, have sometimes an accusative with a preposition 1: as, Quod in rem

¹ We say Conducit tibi ad salutem, but cannot say Conducit ad te. The reason is obvious; the purpose is expressed by ad; and, consequently, the accusative after these verbs, is that of the thing.

rectè conducat tuam—Plaut. Non quo minus quidquam Cæsari expediat ad diuturnitatem dominationis—Cic. In these, there are two nominatives, quod and quidquam; but they are of such a kind as, according to Note 4, may sometimes precede verbs that are used impersonally.

Note 7. An impersonal passive may be used for any person active of the same mood and tense: thus, Statur a me, a te, ab illo; a nobis, a vobis, ab illis, are equivalent to sto, stas, stat, &c. Cæpit, incipit, desinit, debet, solet, potest, videtur, and perhaps some others, (volo, nolo, malo, audeo, cupio, and the like, never,) joined to impersonals, become impersonal: as, Pigere eum facti cæpit—Justin. Tot res circumvallant, unde emergi non potest—Ter.i.e. a nobis, for emergere non possumus. Tædere solet avaros impendii—Quint. for avari solent. In the infinitive also, when another verb precedes: as, Si Volscis ager redderetur, posse agi de pace—Liv.—Yet, we find, Ita primi pænitere cæperunt—Justin. Cum misereri mei debent—Cic.

Note 8. The verbs belonging to this rule, are such as accidit, contingit, evenit, conducit, expedit, lubet, libet, licet, placet, displicet, vacat, restat, præstat, liquet, nocet, dolet, sufficit, apparet, &c. the dative with which they are followed being that of acquisition, according to Rule XXVII. Neuter verbs, and active intransitive verbs are often used impersonally in the passive voice: as, Non invidetur illi ætati, sed etiam favetur—Cic.

Rule XL. Refert and interest require the genitive: as,
Refert patris, It concerns my father.
Interest omnium, It is the interest of all.

Note 1. Thus also, Humanitatis plurimum refert—Plin. Interest omnium rectè facere—Cic.

Note 2. Refert and interest admit likewise these genitives, tanti, quanti, magni, permagni, parvi, pluris: as, Magni interest mea, una nos esse—Cic. Instead of majoris, maximi, &c. magis, maxime, multum, plurimum, minus, minimum or minime, interest or refert, is used. Tanti, quanti, parvi; or tantum, quantum, parum refert or interest, are used indifferently. Juvenal uses Minimo discrimine refert; and hence the common expression Parvo discrimine refert.

. Note 3. They are sometimes used personally, and admit not only the nominatives quid, quod, id, &c., but others also: as, Tua quod nihil refert, percontari desinas—Ter. Illud mea magni interest—Cic. Plurimum refert soli cujusque ratio—Plin. Non quo mea interesset loci natura—Cic.

Note 4. The adverbs, or adverbials tantum, quantum, multum, plurimum, infinitum, parum, with nihil, maxime, minime, and the like, are often joined with them: as, Multum refert—Mart. Plurimum intererit—Juv.

Note 5. When the word following them is a thing, it is often put in the accusative with ad: as, Ad honorem nostrum interest—Cic. Quam ad rem isthuc refert—Plaut. Sometimes when it is a person: as, Quid id ad me, aut ad meam rem refert—Plaut. Plurally; Percontari volo quæ ad rem referunt—Plaut. Seldom the dative: as, Quoi rei id te assimulare retulit—Plaut. Quid referat viventi—Hor. Acino plurimum refert—Plin. But some of these constructions are altered in certain editions.

Note 6. They are sometimes used absolutely, that is, without their regimen's being expressed: as, Neque enim numero comprendere refert—Virg. Interest enim, non quæ ætas, neque quid in compore intus geratur, sed quæ vires—Cels.

Note 7. The construction is elliptical, and may be supplied thus: Refert patris, i. e. refert se ad negotia patris. Interest omnium, i. e. est inter negotia omnium.

Rule XLI. But mea, tua, sua, nostra, vestra, are put in the accusative plural: as,

Non mea refert, I am not concerned.

Note 1. That is, instead of using mei, tui, sui, nostrum, vestrum, the genitives of the substantive pronouns, the accusative plural, neuter gender, of the corresponding pronominal adjectives, is used: as, Et tua et mea maxime interest—Cic. Tanti illud refert mea—Plaut.

Note 2. Cuja, and cujus interest are used indifferently: as, Detur ei cuja interfuit, non ei cuja nihil interfuit—Cic. Quis enim est hodie, cujus intersit istam legem manere?—Cic.

Note 3. The constructions of this and the preceding rule sometimes occur in the same clause: as, Mea et reipublicæ interest. Magni interest Ciceronis, vel mea potius, vel utriusque, me intervenire discenti-Cic. In the first part of the last example, occur the genitive of estimation or value, and the genitive of the person; afterwards, the accusative plural. Whether we can use Mea unius interest, Tua solius refert, Nostra ipsorum interest, Mea oratoris interest, Mea Ciceronis interest, and the like, is not ascertained. At any rate, it is better to say Mea refert, qui sum natu maximus -Plin, than mea natu maximi; and in the case of a person's speaking of himself, as in Mea Cæsaris refert, it is better to omit the proper name. When the discourse is directed to a second person, it is more elegant to use the vocative: thus, Magis nullius interest quam tua, Tite Otacili-Liv. Vestra, commilitones, interest-Tacit. Alvarez prefers Nostrum omnium interest, to Nostra omnium interest, in which omnium is governed by interest, and nostrum by omnium, i. e. all of us equivalent to us all.

Note 4. Some have supposed mea, tua, &c. to be the ablative singular feminine, with causâ, gratiâ, or re understood. Others

contend that they are the accusative plural, neuter gender; which case we have adopted. It is unnecessary to recapitulate the arguments used on either side. —Perizonius is of opinion, that Interest mea is Interest inter mea negotia, or perhaps, Est inter mea negotia; and that Refert tua is Refert se ad tua negotia. Thus Plautus says Quid id ad me, aut ad meam rem refert. Cicero, Omnia ad suam utilitatem referre. The author of the Comp. Synt. Erasm. seems inclined to steer a middle course, and to think that mea, tua, &c. are ablatives after refert, and accusatives after interest. These are all the possible varieties; but it is a matter of very little consequence to ascertain which of them comes the nearest to the truth. —The genitives magni, parvi, tanti, &c. may be accounted for, in the same manner as was done after verbs referring to price or value.

RULE XLII. These five, miseret, panitet, pudet, tædet, and piget, govern the accusative of a person, with the genitive of a person or thing: as,

Miseret me tui, I pity you.

Pænitet me peccati, I repent of my sin. Tædet me vitæ, I am weary of life.

- Note 1. Thus also, Miseret te aliorum, tui te nec miseret, nec pudet—Plaut. Eos incptiarum pæniteret—Cic. Me civitatis morum piget tædetque—Sall. Miserescit may be joined: as, Inopis nunc te miserescat mei—Ter.
- Note 2. The infinitive or part of a sentence sometimes supplies the place of the genitive: as, Te id puduit, facere—Ter. At nos puduit, quia cum catenis sumus—Plaut. Non pænitet me quantum profecerim—Cic.
- Note 3. The accusative is sometimes omitted; and sometimes the verbs are used absolutely: as, Scelerum si bene prenitet—Hor. i. e. nos. Nisi piget, consistite—Plaut.
- Note 4. These verbs are sometimes used personally, especially with the pronouns hoc, id, quid, &c.: as, Me quidem hec conditio nunc non pænitet—Plaut. Ipse sui miseret—Lucr. Non te hec pudent—Ter. Ira ea tædet, quæ invasit—Senec. Nimio id quod pudet faciliùs fertur, quam id quod piget—Plaut. Here perhaps fecisse or fieri may be understood, and quod may be the accusative case. These few examples, opposed to the general practice, can be considered but as peculiarities of the writers.—It is observed that the participles of these verbs are in every respect like other participles: thus, Nec multò post pænitens facti—Suet. Hic ager colono est pænitendus—Colum. Nullâ parte pigendus erit—Ovid.
- Note 5. The genitive is supposed to be governed by some substantive, such as negotium, factum, res, respectus, or the like, understood: as, Miseret me tui, i. e. negotium tui mali miseret me; or respectus tui miseret me. Non te horum pullet, i. e. negotium or co-

gitatio. Or a more particular word may be supplied: thus, Miseret me ejus, i. e. miseria or calamitas. Plura me ad te scribere pudet is equivalent to Pudor habet me, or, pudor est mihi, me plura ad te scribere. Vitæ tædet me, i. e. res vitæ, this being equivalent to vita, in imitation of the Greeks, who sometimes use $\tau o \chi \rho \eta \mu \alpha \tau \omega v \nu \mu \tau \omega v$, for hæc nox or hoc noctis. The accusative they govern, as verbs transitive.

Rule XLIII. These four, Decet, delectat, juvat, oportet, govern the accusative of the person with the infinitive: as,

Non decet te rixari, It does not become you to scold.

Delectat me studere, I delight to study.

Note 1. Thus also, Oratorem irasci minimè decet, simulare non dedecet—Cic. Me pedibus delectat claudere verba—Hor. Me juvat coluisse—Propert. Mendacem memorem esse oportet—Quinct. The first three govern the accusative, as transitive verbs; but as oportet is neuter, being equivalent to opus est, or necesse est, the accusative following it is not governed by it, but depends upon the infinitive mood following.

Note 2. Decet sometimes takes the dative: as, Ita nobis decet—Ter. But this seems a Græcism; $\dot{\eta}\mu\tilde{\nu}\nu$ $\pi\rho\dot{\epsilon}\pi\epsilon\iota$. Juvat and oportet likewise seem to have been formerly construed with a dative.

Note 3. Oportet is elegantly joined with the subjunctive mood, ut being understood: as, Ex rerum cognitione efflorescat, et redundet oportet oratio—Cic. Also with perfect participles, esse, or fuisse, being understood: as, Adolescenti morem gestum oportuit—Ter.

Note 4. Fallit, fugit, præterit, latet, when used impersonally, have an accusative, and generally with the infinitive: as, Fugit me ad te scribere—Cic. Sometimes, instead of the infinitive, is used a finite verb with some particle: as, Illud alterum quàm sit difficile, non te fugit—Cic. Latet me, and latet mihi, do not rest on very high authority.

Note 5. Attinet, pertinet, and spectat, have an accusative with ad: as, Perdat, pereat, nihil ad me attinet—Ter. Ad rempublicam pertinet me conservari—Cic. Spectat ad omnes bene vivere—Incert. but this last is uncommon.—Attinet me is sometimes used for attinet ad me.

Note 6. Decet, delectat, juvat, are often used personally, and oportet sometimes: as, Parvum parva decent—Hor. Thus also dedecet, condecet and indecet: as, Quarum me dedecet usus—Ovid. Ornatus me condecet—Plant. Juvenes adhuc confusa quædam et quasi turbata non indecent—Plin. Literæ me delectarunt—Cic. Otia me somnusque juvant—Mart. Hæc facta ab illo oportebant—Ter. Delecto, and juvo used for auxilior, frequently occur in

the first and second persons——Specto, used personally for pertinet or tendit, takes an accusative with ad: as, Res ad arma spectat—Cic. When it refers to place, the preposition may be either expressed, or omitted: as, Spectat ad meridiem—Cæs. Spectare Hispaniam—Plin. But pertinet, as in Pertinet ad Helvetios, ad arcem—Cæs. in which it is equivalent to tendit or vergit, is never used without a preposition.

Note 7. The nature of this construction is sufficiently evident. These impersonals, as they are called, govern the accusative, being transitive verbs, oportet alone excepted. The infinitive mood which follows them, or other words in the sentence, supplies the place of a nominative to them.

Of Passive Verbs, and others admitting an Ablative with a Preposition.

*Rule XLIII. The principal agent, when following a verb of passive signification, is governed by a, ab, or abs: as, Laudatur ab his, culpatur ab illis—Hor. Omnis ora maritima depopulata ab Achæis crat—Liv. Testis in eum rogatus, an ab reo fustibus vapulásset—Quinct. Opera fiebant a legionibus—Hirt. B. Afr. Respondit a cive spoliari se malle, quàm ab hoste venire—Quinct.

Note 1. Neuter verbs, (especially those whose signification resembles that of passives,) and deponents also, admit an ablative with a or ab: as, Ne vir ab hoste cadat—Ovid. Rem atrocem Macedo a servis suis passus est—Plin.

Note 2. Passive verbs sometimes take the dative, especially among the poets: as, Quia non intelligor ulli—Ovid. for ab ullo. Nullaque laudetur mihi—Ovid. for a me.—Videor, used in the sense of I seem, always governs the dative: as, Mihi videbor esse restitutus—Cic. In its primary signification of I am seen, it is sometimes thus construed; but generally with the ablative and a preposition: as, Sum visus ab illo—Ovid.

Note 3. The secondary agent, means or instrument, following an active, passive, or neuter verb, is governed by per, or is expressed in the ablative: as, Per me defensa est respublica—Cic. Naturam expellas furca—Hor.

Note 4. The preposition a or ab is sometimes suppressed: as, Desertaque conjuge ploret—Ovid. Colitur linigerá turbá—Ovid. Scriberis Vario—Hor.

Note 5. Some verbs are found, in the same sense, construed either with the dative, or the ablative and a preposition: as, Neque populo neque cuiquam bono probatur—Cic. Meum factum probari abs te, triumpho gaudio—Cæs. ad Cic.

Note 6. A great many other verbs take also the ablative with

a or ab referring to the source or origin of their action; such as verbs of,

- 1. Receiving; as accipio, capio, sumo, mutuor; also adipiscor, consequor, impetro, &c. thus, A majoribus morem accepimus—Cic.
- 2. Distance, Difference, and Dissention; as disto, distero, dissention, dissideo, discrepo, discordo: thus, Cum a veris falsa non distent—Cic.
- 3. Desiring, Intreating, and Inquiring; as peto, expeto, posco, percontor, scitor, sciscitor, rogo, oro, obsecto, precor, postulo, flugito, contendo, exigo, &c.: as, A te open petimus—Cic.
- 4. Cessation; as cesso, desisto, quiesco, requiesco, tempero: thus, A præliis cessare—Liv.
- 5. Expecting; as expecto, spero, &c.: thus, Ab alio exspectes, alteri quod feceris—P. Syr. Ab uno exspectes quod a multis sperare nequeas—Buchan. Perhaps in such instances there is an ellipsis of a verb of receiving.
- 6. Taking away and Removing; as, aufero, rapio, surripio, furor, tollo, removeo, arceo, prohibeo, pello, repello, propulso, revoco; also contineo, cohibeo, refræno, defendo, munio, tego, tueor, deficio, descisco, degenero, to which may be added verbs compounded with a or ab; as abigo, abstineo, amoveo, abduco, abrado, amitto for dimitto, avello, avoco, &c.: thus Minas triginta ab illo abstuli—Ter. Cohibere animum ab alieno—Cic.
- 7. Dismissing, Banishing, and Disjoining; as dimitto, relegodisjungo, divello, segrego, separo: thus, Eum ab se dimitti—Cæs.
- 8. Buying; as emo, mercor, fæneror, conduco: thus, A piscatoribus jactum emerat--V. Max.
- 9. Many other verbs of various significations; as caveo, declino, deflecto; discedo, recedo; affero, do, reddo, fero, reporto; incipio, ordior; servo, custodio, vindico; timeo, metuo, formido, &c.: thus, Tibi ego, Brute, non solvam, nisi prius a te cavero—Cic.
- Note 7. Many of these vary their construction. Aufero, adimo, eripio, &c. generally govern the dative; also sometimes verbs of Defending, Difference, and Distance. We say Interdicere alicui aliquam rem, aliqua re, and, according to Cicero, Prætor interdixit de vi hominibus armatis. Timere, metuere ab aliquo, and aliquem. Verbs of Asking have generally two accusatives. Prohibeo, cesso, desisto, are often followed by the infinitive. By the subjunctive and ut or ne, verbs of Intreating, Asking, and Fearing; with ne, prohibeo, interdico, and caveo (the last generally without ne); and also with quin and quo minus, interdico, and prohibeo. Verbs of Asking are often followed by an, num, utrum, &c. -- Again; Verbs are often followed by other prepositions: as, Differre discrepare, dissentire cum aliquo, for ab aliquo. Emo, redimo, declino, deflecto de. Haurio, sumo, habeo, percontor, scitor, sciscitor, ex. Audio, moveo, dimoveo, pello, aufero, tollo, cedo, colligo, quæro (signifying to inquire) de or ex. Arceo, prohibeo, interclu-

do, moveo, pello, cedo, desisto, sepono, submoveo; also abdico and supersedeo, an ablative without a preposition. The last two never have the preposition expressed.

Note 8. In like manner, certain adjectives of Diversity and Order, such as alius, alter, alienus, diversus; secundus, tertius, &c. take an ablative with a or ab: as, Quicquam aliud a libertate—Cic. Tu nunc eris alter ab illo—Virg. Ut sacerdos ejus Deæ, majestate, imperio et potentià secundus a rege habeatur—Hirt. B. Alex. Or alius without a preposition: as, Neve putes alium sapiente bonoque beatum—Hor. Quod si accusator alius Sejano foret—Phædr.

Note 9. Verbs of Striving; as, contendo, certo, bello, pugno: of Joining or Coming together; as jungo, conjungo, concumbo, coëo, misceo, take an ablative with cum: as, Mecum certâsse feretur—Ovid. Saluten meam cum communi salute conjungere discrevi—Cic. Consilia cum illo non miscuerant—Tac. To these add confero, comparo, compono, and contendo used for comparo, with communico and participo.—But of these the construction is often varied; for we say Contendere, certare, &c. contra or adversus aliquem; also inter se, and, poetically, alicui. Jungo and conjungo have also the dative usually; and poetically, concumbo, coeo, and misceo. We also find Jungere se ad aliquem—Cic. Jungi, coirc, misceri, inter se, are common.

Note 10. Mereor, facio, fit, erit, futurum est, take an ablative with de: as, Ita de populo Romano meritus est—Cic. Mereo also; as, Si bene quid de te merui—Virg. Indicium de fide ejus fecisti—Cic. Quid de me fiet?—Ter. But generally the preposition is omitted: as, Quid hoc homine faciatis—Cic. Quid te futurum censes?—Ter. Sometimes the dative is used: as, Quid huic tu homini facies—Cic. Quid mihi fiet—Ovid. 1

Note 11. Verbs of Perceiving and Knowing; as intelligo, sentio, cognosco, conjicio, disco, percipio, colligo, audio, take the ablative with e or ex: as, Ex gestu tuo intelligo quid velis—Cic. Ex tuis literis statum rerum cognovi—Cic. Hoc ex illo audivi—Cic.

Note 12. A variation in the construction, or in the prepositions, often alters the sense: thus, Audire ex aliquo refers to the source of information. Audire de aliquo generally refers to the object concerning which information is given. Yet, Cicero uses Sæpe hoc audivi de patre et de soccro meo; for ex patre, ex socero. Cognoscere ex aliquo, i. e. to discover from one. De aliquo, i. e. to judge of him. Mereri aliquid, i. e. to deserve a thing. De aliquo, i. e. of one. Sentire cum aliquo, i. e. to be of one's opinion. De aliquo bene vel male, i. e. to think well or ill of him. Timere, metuere aliquem, or ab aliquo, i. e. to be afraid of one. Timere, metuere alicui, or pro aliquo, i. e. to be afraid or concerned for him.

Quid tibi fiet, and Quid de te fiet, have no other difference than "What will be done to you?" and "What will become of you?"

Note 13. Passive impersonals are either used absolutely; as, Quid agitur? Statur—Ter. Or they take after them the case of their personals, the accusative of the active voice excepted: as, Ut majoribus natu assurgatur, ut supplicum misereatur—Cic Nec mihi parcatur—Ovid.

Note 14. The accusative of the active voice constituting the nominative in the passive, it follows, that verbs which govern the dative only, can be used passively in the same sense as impersonals only; thus instead of Illa actas non invidetur, sed favetur, we should say Non invidetur illi actati, sed favetur—Cic. instead of Noceor, Nocetur mihi. The converse of this is in general true:—that whatever verb is used in the first and second persons passive, its active admits an accusative after it. Very few examples occur to the contrary.

Note 15. Passive impersonals, coming from neuter verbs, sometimes become personal, taking a nominative of the same or of a kindred signification: thus, Cursus curritur, Vita vivitur, &c. because we can say, in the same manner, actively, Curro cursum, Vivo vitam. Pugna illa quæ pugnata est—Cic. Omne militabitur bellum—Hor. Jam tertia vivitur ætas—Ovid.—Many neuter verbs taken in an active sense, or in a sense different from their primary signification, are found in the passive voice, used as if they came from active verbs; these will be found in one of the annexed lists.

OF THE INFINITIVE, PARTICIPLES, GERUNDS, AND SUPINES.

RULE XLIV. One verb governs another in the infinitive: as,

Cupio discere, I desire to learn.

Note 1. Or, when two verbs come together, without a conjunction expressed or understood, one of them is put in the infinitive: as, Qui mentiri solet, pejerare consuevit—Cic. Incipit apparere—Virg.

Note 2. The infinitive is frequently subjoined to adjectives, especially among the poets: as, Insueto vera audire ferocior oratio visa est—Liv. Audax omnia perpeti—Hor. Dignus amari—Virg.

Note 3. The infinitive, with, or without, an accusative expressed, frequently depends upon nouns and verbs: as, Et jam tempus equûm fumantia solvere colla—Virg. Utrum melius esset ingredi—Cic. Se semper credunt negligi—Ter. Non satis est pulchra esse poemata—Hor.

Note 4. Sometimes the accusative is turned into the dative: as, Quid est autem tam secundum naturam, quam senibus emori—Cic.

Cato maj Perhaps the whole sentence may be Quid est tam secundum naturam, quam (est secundam naturam) senibus, (senes,) emori.

- Note 5. The governing word is sometimes understood: as, Mene incepto desistere victam—Virg. i. e. decet or par est. Ego illud sedulo negare factum—Ter. i. e. capi. In such forms as Videre est, Animadvertere est, facultas, potestas, copia, or the like, is understood. Thus also, Neque est te fallere cuiquam—Virg.
- Note 6. The infinitive itself is sometimes suppressed: as, Ei provinciam Numidiam populus jussit—Sall. i. e. dari. Socratem fidibus docuit—Cic. i. e. canere.
- Note 7. It has just been mentioned that the infinitive is often dependent upon cæpi understood: but many instances occur in which this idiom cannot be rationally explained upon the supposition of such an ellipsis: as, Verùm ingenium ejus haud absurdum: posse versus facere, jocum movere—Sall.
- Note 8. When the infinitive mood is governed by a preceding verb, it supplies the place of a substantive, since it is the object of the action, energy, or affection denoted by the governing verb; thus in Cupio discere, discere is the object of the affection denoted by cupio, in the same manner as in English, to learn or learning, is the object of I desire, when we say I desire to learn, or I desire learning.——The infinitive mood may, therefore, be considered as a substantive. Its gender is neuter; it is of the singular number; and is used in all cases. It is governed by nouns, verbs, and prepositions; and adjectives and pronouns agree with it, as will be seen in the following examples:

1. It is used as a nominative to a verb personal: as, Utinam emori fortunis meis honestus exitus esset—Sall. As a nominative following a verb substantive; thus, Sive illud erat sine funere ferri—Ovid. As a nominative to a verb sometimes esteemed impersonal: thus, Cadit in eundem et misercri et invidere—Cic. As a case in apposition to a preceding nominative: thus, Res erat spectaculo digna, videre Xerxem in exiguo latentem navigio—Justin. It is true that, in this last example, videre, the infinitive, is, as in a preceding example, the nominative to the substantive verb; but the sentence is usually translated, "It was a thing worthy

of being seen—to behold, or observe, Xerxes," &c. 2. It is used after some substantives and adjective

2. It is used after some substantives and adjectives as a genitive, often convertible into the gerund in di: as, Tempus est abire—Cic. for abeundi, or abitionis. Est animus nobis effundere vitam—Ovid. Non defuit animus adoriri—Suet. Soli cantare periti Arcades—Virg. for cantandi, or cantûs.

3. It is used as a dative: thus, Et vos servire magis, quàm imperare parati estis—Sall. i. e. servituti magis quàm imperio.

4. As an accusative: thus, Da mihi fullere—Hor. i.e. artem fallendi. Terram cum primum arant, proscindere appellant; cum iterum, offringere dicunt—Varr. After a preposition: as, Nihil

interest inter dare et accipere—Senec. Præter plorare--Hor. Præter loqui--Liv.

5. As a vocative, in O vivere nostrum, for O vita nostra.

6. As an Ablative: thus, Et erat tum dignus amari—Virg. for amore. Ne operam perdas poscere—Plaut. i. e. in poscendo. As an ablative case absolute, either with, or without, a preceding accusative expressed: thus, Hand cuiquam dubio opprimi posse

-Liv. Audito regem in Siciliam tendere-Sall.

7. It admits an adjective or pronoun to agree with it: as, Totum hoc displicet philosophari--Cic. Sed ipsum Latine loqui est illud quidem in magna laude ponendum--Cic. Seire tuum nihil est--Pers. The poets often join an adjective with the infinitive, which may be considered either as an adverb, or as an adjective agreeing with it: thus, Datur ordo senectæ Admeto, serumque mori-Stat. Reddes dulce loqui, reddes ridere decorum-Hor.

8. It is found with the genitive of a pronoun after it, like a noun: as, Quid est hujus vivere? diu mori—Sen. F. Maximus;

cujus non dimicare fuit vincere-Val. Max.

- Note 9. The infinitive is used as an accusative, after verbs of an active signification: as, Desidero te videre, for conspectum tuum: and this chiefly when there is no suitable noun: as, Nescio mentiri. Likewise, when the infinitive may be resolved into quod, ut, ne, quin, &c. with some finite verb: as, Non dubitabo te monere— Cic. i. e. quin te moneam. It is sometimes used when convertible into the participle in dus: as, Loricam donat habere viro-Virg. i. e. habendam, or ut habeat. It supplies the place of an accusative with ad, propter, or ob: as, Num te emere coëgit-Cic. i. e. ad emere or ad emendum. Plorat aquam profundere-Plaut. i.e. ob aquam profundendam. The infinitive is generally used in English and in Greek, when the intention is to denote the final cause; this is not common in Latin, but a few instances of it occur: as, Non te frangere persequor-Hor. i. e. ut frangam. Introit videre-Ter. Proteus pecus egit altos visere montes-Hor. This may be considered either as a poetical license or a Græcism, and is not to be imitated.
- Note 10. The infinitive mood and its accusative case (which form is equivalent to quod or ut with a finite verb) often supplies the place of a case: as, Scin' me tuum esse herum—Plaut. Te accepisse meas literas gaudeo—Ter. in which the neuter verb may be supposed to be followed by the preposition $\mu\alpha\tau\alpha$ or propter.
- Note 11. The infinitive has been termed Nomen Verbi, or the noun of the verb: and whenever the verb following that intervening between two verbs, is convertible, according to the sense, into a cognate noun, the noun and verb following that may generally be put in Latin, the one in the accusative, and the other in the infinitive, omitting the Latin of that: thus, Audivi eum venisse, I heard that he had arrived, is equivalent to ejus adventum, of his arrival. Scripsit se cupere, to suam cupiditatem. The in-

finitive is, however, sometimes turned into a finite verb followed either by quod or ut, although these two are not, but very seldom, mutually convertible: thus,

- 1. The infinitive mood, or sometimes quòd followed by the indicative or subjunctive, is put after verbs of sense; as sentio, animadverto, intelligo, audio, censeo, scio, credo, obliviscor, &c.: verbs of affection; as gaudeo, lætor, doleo, ægre fero, miror, &c. except veròs of desire and fear, which require ut: verbs of speaking and showing; as dico, aio, perhibeo, refero, nuncio, nego, ostendo, demonstro, promitto, polliceor, spondco, voveo, &c.: (but after the following the infinitive is used, but never quòd; solet, cæpit, incipit, potest, quit, nequit, est for licet, debet, &c.): as, Miror te ad me nihil scribere—Cic. Scio se promittere falsò—Ovid. Scio jam filius quòd amet meus—Ter. for filium meum amare. Scribis mihi, mirari Ciceronem, quòd nihil significem de suis actis—Brut. ad Att. ap. Cic.—This subject will be further noticed under Conjunctions, where an alphabetical list will be given of the principal words usually followed by quod, ut, or the infinitive.
- 2. The infinitive, or the subjunctive with ut, may be subjoined to verbs of willing; as volo, nolo, malo, cupio, opto, permitto, sino, patior, &c. (these rather take the infinitive:) to verbs of commanding; as impero, mando, præcipio, edico, &c.; to verbs of intreating; as oro, rogo, postulo, peto, flagito, præcor, &c., (but these oftener take the subjunctive with ut or ne:) also to verbs denoting something future; as paro, cogo, impello, urgeo, decerno, statuo, constituo, facio, studeo, &c.; and to certain impersonals, or words used impersonally; as libet, licet, decet, oportet, expedit, conducit, prodest, obest, nocet, refert, interest, præstat, sequitur, &c. to which may be added such expressions as Æquum est, Par est, Certum est, Fas est, Nefas est, but these seldom take the subjunctive with ut. Thus, Vis me uxorem ducere?—Ter. or ut uxorem ducam. Non aliter cineres mando jacere meos-Mart. or, ut cineres mei jaceant. His orat vigiles incumbere curas-Val. Flac. or, ut his vigiles curæ incumbant. Modo liceat vivere, est spes-Ter. or, ut vivamus.—It is observed that the subjunctive with ut or ne, is more common after verbs of commanding, than the infinitive; but that the infinitive generally occurs after a dative or an accusative, the subjunctive, after a dative only: as, Cadmo perquirere raptam [filiam] Imperat—Ovid. Equitatum procedere imperat - Cæs. Suis, ut idem faciant, imperat - Cæs. - It is likewise observed, that, after the following words, the conjunction is often omitted, volo, nolo, malo, rogo, precor, censeo, caveo, suadeo, licet, oportet, jubeo, and similar words, moneo, and the like; after dic used for jube, after sine, fac or facito, esto, (suppose, grant;) and after necesse est, inscitia est, dare operam: as, Syro ignoscas volo-Ter. Nec medeare mihi sanesque hæc vulnera man-Tu fac bono magnoque animo sis-Cic. Inscitia est, adversum stimulum calces—Ter. Licet adjicias—Var. Illud monco, castra habeas-Nep. Esto, populus mallet-Hor. The verb of in-

treating is sometimes omitted: as, Ut isthunc di, deæque perdant. Precor, or a similar word, is understood.

Note 12. Dubito and dubium est are sometimes followed by the infinitive, but oftener by the subjunctive with an, num, utrum, and (if non goes before) quin: as, Non dubito fore plerosque-Nep. Periisse me una haud dubium est—Ter. Non dubium est, quin uxorem nolit filius-Ter. Diu dubitavit, imperium deponeret, an bello resisteret—Justin. It is to be observed, that such phrases as Dubito an, Haud scio an, Nescio an, although from their very nature they imply some doubt, are, notwithstanding, generally used in a sense almost affirmative: thus, Si per se virtus sine fortuna ponderanda sit, dubito an hunc primum omnium ponam-Nep. i. e. for aught I know he may be placed first, or I am inclined to place him first. Atque haud scio an quæ dixit vera sint omnia— Ter. denotes that he is inclined to believe all that had been said, to be true. Eloquentia quidem nescio an parem habuisset neminem -Cic. implies that he supposed he had no equal. A few instances might be mentioned in which such phrases are to be interpreted negatively.

Note 13. Verbs of fearing; such as timeo, metuo, vereor, paveo, are used affirmatively with ne, but negatively with ut or ne non: thus, Timet ne deseras se—Ter. She is afraid that you may forsake her. Paves ne ducas uxorem—Ter. denotes you are afraid to marry. Paves ut ducas—Ter. You are afraid lest you should not marry her. Vereor ne exercitum firmum habere possit-Cic. I am afraid lest he should have a good army. Intellexi te vereri ne superiores literæ mihi redditæ non essent-Cic. I understood you were afraid, that I had not received your last letter. Timeo ne non impetrem -Cic. I am afraid I shall not carry the point. In explanation of this, it may perhaps be observed, that such Latin verbs have in themselves something of a negative nature, that, ex. gr. timeo has in it something of the nature of non spero, expectation being, in a certain sense, the basis of both; that, therefore, seeing they are negative themselves, it follows that, when they are followed by ne, which is another negative, the sense must be, on the whole, affirmative, since two negatives destroy each other; and that when they are followed by ut, which is no negative, or by ne non, which, being two negatives, is equivalent to an affirmative, they are still negative, as they are followed by nothing capable of destroying their own negative signification. Thus also if we use two words of a negative nature, as in Non vereor ut id flat, or, which is the same thing, four negatives, as in Non vereor ne non id fiat, the meaning is affirmative, and the same in both, namely, that we are almost certain, that we expect, or suspect, that the thing we wish for will happen; and, therefore, that we are not afraid that it will not come to pass. Thus Cicero, Ne verendum quidem est ut tenere se possit, et moderari. We have no reason to be afraid of his containing and governing himself; or, although the expression is somewhat stronger, we have reason to

believe, or to expect, that he will, &c. Non vereor ne hoc officium meum Servilio non probem. I am not afraid, or I hope, that I shall be able to justify my conduct to Servilius.—There is, it is observed, a distinction between Vereor ne, and Vereor ut, in the former's being used to denote our fear that something may happen, which we do not wish; and in the latter's implying our fear that something may not happen, which we wish to happen.—The infinitive is but seldom used after these: thus, Metuit tangi—Hor. i. e. ne tangatur. Sed vereor tardæ causa fuisse moræ—Ovid. i. e. ne causa fuerim. But in such expressions as Metuit tentare, Timet venire, Vereor dicere, He is afraid of trying, or to try, &c. the infinitive only is used, because in these the reference is to a simple, positive action; in the others, to one which is contingent.

Note 14. After such verbs as existimo, puto, sparo, affirmo, suspicor, &c. the place of the future of the infinitive may be elegantly supplied by fore or futurum esse, the verb being put in the subjunctive with ut: as, Existimabant plerique futurum fuisse, ut oppidum amitteretur—Cæs. Nunquam putavi fore ut ad te supplex venirem—Cic. When the verb has no future participle, this phraseology becomes necessary.

Note 15. The English infinitive following any part of the verb am is expressed in Latin by the future participle: as, Rationem redditurus est, He is about to give an account. Ratio reddenda est—Cic., An account is to be given. It may sometimes, as after video, sentio, audio, be expressed in Latin by the present participle; as, Vidi eum ingredientem, I saw him enter, or entering. Sensi illum lacrymas effundentem, I saw him shed tears.

The General Rule for the Government of Participles, Gerunds, and Supines.

RULE XLV. Participles, Gerunds, and Supines, govern the case of their own verbs: as,

Amans virtutem, Loving virtue. Carens fraude, Wanting guile.

Note 1. Thus also, Quidam nominatus poëta—Cic. Regni rerumque obliti—Virg. Indulgens sibi hydrops—Hor. Non inscriora secutus—Virg. Virum pecunid indigentem —V. Max. Parcendum est teneris—Juv. Consilium Lacedæmonem occupandi—Liv. Utendum est ætate—Ovid. Aut Graiis servitum matribus ibo—Virg. Legati venerunt questum injurias, et ex sædere res repetitum—Liv. Vaticinatus est madesactum iri Græciam sanguine—Cic.

¹ We find Egens omnibus—Cic. and Omnium honestarum rerum egens—Sall. Abundans is likewise thus construed, but the ablative is the more frequent. Indigens is also construed with a genitive. Such constructions may be referred to this rule, since egeo, abundo, and indigeo, are found with a genitive. Some, however, refer them to Rule XXI, and others refer the genitive to Rule XIV.

Note 2. Government belongs to the first supine only.

Note 3. Verbal nouns sometimes govern the case of their verbs: as, Justitia est obtemperatio scriptis legibus—Cic. Insidiæ consuli non procedebant—Sall. In these, perhaps, some participle may be understood, as præstitus or factus. Ignis aquæ pugnax—Ovid. Gratulabundus patriæ—Justin. Vitabundus castra hostium—Liv.

Note 4. The gerund in di, in imitation of a substantive, sometimes governs, instead of the accusative plural, the genitive plural: as, Nominandi istorum erit copia—Plaut. Neque sui colligendi hostibus facultatem relinquunt—Cæs. This is most common with pronouns; but we also find Facultas agrorum condonandi—Cic. Exemplorum eligendi potestas—Cic. &c. If the genitive singular be found, and this is very uncommon, it happens when the pronoun is of the feminine gender: as, Quoniam tui videndi est copia—Plaut. Ego ejus videndi cupidus rectà consequor—Ter. Few instances can be adduced of its governing any other singular genitive than that of pronouns feminine.

Note 5. Exosus, perosus, and often also pertæsus, signify actively, and govern the accusative: as, Tædas exosa jugales—Ovid. Plebs consulum nomen perosa erat—Liv. Pertæsus ignaviam suam—Suet. Pertæsus, used impersonally, governs the genitive also: as, Pertæsum levitatis—Cic. thalami tædæque—Virg. Exosus and perosus, signifying passively, are said to be found with a dative: as, Germani Romanis perosi sunt. Exosus Deo et sanctis—Lily. Exosus universis—Eutrop.

Note 6. Do, reddo, volo, curo, facio, habeo, with the accusative of a perfect participle, are often used by way of circumlocution, instead of the verb of the participle: as, Effectum dabo—Ter. i. e. efficiam. Me missum face—Ter. i. e. mitte. Inventas reddam—Ter. i. e. inveniam. In certain instances there is an evident difference between the simple tense of the verb, and the periphrasis corresponding to the manner in which it is usually interpreted in English: thus, if we say Gladius quem abdiderat, or Gladius quem abditum habebat, the translation of either is, The sword which she had concealed. The latter is the phraseology of Livy, describing the suicide of Lucretia, and implies the actual possession of the dagger, at the time; the former does not.—In the others, the periphrastic form is said usually to denote greater emphasis than what is contained in the simple tense of the verb.

Note 7. Curo, habeo, mando, loco, conduco, do, tribuo, accipio, mitto, relinquo, and the like, as edico, deposco, suscipio, rogo, trado, permitto, instead of the infinitive, the subjunctive, or sometimes the gerund in dum with ad, are elegantly construed with the participle in dus, agreeing with a substantive in gender, number, and case: as, Funus ei satis amplum faciendum curavi—Cic. for fieri or ut fieret. Demus nos philosophiæ excolendos—Cic. Edico dirabellum cum gente gerendum—Virg. Qui laudem gloriamque P. Africani tucudam conservandamque suscepit—Cic. Attribuit nos

trucidandos Cethego; cæteros cives interficiendos Gabinio; urbem inflammandam Cassio; totam Italiam vastandam diripiendamque Catilinæ—Cic. in which the gerund in dum might be used, as ad trucidandum, ad interficiendum, &c.

GERUNDS.

RULE XLVI. The gerund in dum of the nominative case, with the verb est, governs the dative: as,

Vivendum est mihi rectè, I must live well. Moriendum est omnibus, All must die.

Note 1. That is, the gerund in dum of the nominative case, denoting necessity or obligation, with the third person singular of any tense of sum, or with foret, governs the dative of the object with which the necessity or obligation lies: as, Dolendum est tibi ipsi—Hor. Multa novis rebus præsertim quum sit agendum—Lucr. Etiamsi cum pluribus dimicandum foret—Liv. In these last, however, the dative is understood.

Note 2. The dative is often understood: as, Orandum est, ut sit mens sana in corpore sano—Juv. supply tibi.

Note 3. Neuter verbs, denoting posture or gesture, which have a nominative before and after them, may have after this gerund two datives: as, Tibi in tud pace armato vivendum est—Senec. equivalent to Tibi in tud pace armato [vel armatum] vivere necesse est.

Note 4. After another verb, this gerund is turned into the accusative with esse or fore, expressed or understood: as, Quotidie meditere resistendum esse iracundiæ—Cic. Quibus rebus quàm maturrimè occurrendum (esse) putabat—Cæs. Rursus ab Senatu ei postulandum fore—Liv.

Note 5. This gerund may be resolved into the infinitive, or the subjunctive with ut generally understood, such words as necesse est, oportet, debeo, going before: as, Cuique manendum est, into Quisque debet manere. Moriendum est, into Homini necesse est mori, or ut moriatur. Ei postea non credendum, into Ei credi postea non oportet—Cic. When the verb is neuter, it is not convertible into the participle in dus; but when it is active, it may be thus varied: as, Habendum est canes, i. e. Oportet habere canes; or Habendi sunt canes, i. e. Oportet canes haberi. The latter is said to be the more frequent construction, when there is a passive voice; but the former is not, on that account, to be reckoned an antiquated form of expression. The antients frequently varied this construction by the substantive verb, and a verbal noun in io: as, Quid tibi hane curatio est rem—Plaut. Cavendum est may be changed into Cautio mihi est, Cautio mea est¹, Debeo cavere, Ne-

In these two forms, the duty, necessity, or obligation, does not appear so evident as in the others.

cesse est mihi cavere, Necesse est or Oportet me cavere, Necesse habeo cavere, Caveam oportet or necesse est.

Note 6. Grammarians have differed in their explanation of the construction of gerunds, some considering them as the participle in dus, and others, as verbal nouns governing a case. That they are not participles, is inferred chiefly from the two considerations, that they have no substantive expressed, with which they agree, and that neuter verbs in o, which have no participle in dus, have, notwithstanding, the verbal noun or gerund. Taking them as nouns, this construction may be thus explained; Eundum est mihi, I must go, i. e. Eundum est (opus) mihi, Going is needful or necessary for me. Orandum est, ut sit &c. i. e. Orandum, ut sit &c. est (opus nobis;) equivalent to opus est, ut oremus. If dum be considered as coming from the participle in dus, such examples as the last may be thus explained passively; Hoc est orandum, ut sit &c. It is to be observed that the gerund in dum, while it is followed by a dative, governs at the same time the case of its verb: thus, in the last example, if orandum be taken in an active sense, the words ut sit mens sana &c. supply the place of an accusative to it: thus also Utendum est (nobis) atate—Ovid.——In regard to their signification, there has been a considerable difference among gramma rians, some asserting that it is active, and some, passive. I believe it will be generally found, that they have the same signification as their verbs, that is, when these are active, they are active; and when these are neuter, they are so likewise. It may be inferred from their government of other cases, besides the dative which all gerunds in dum with the verb est govern, that they have an active signification, those which come from neuter verbs being excepted. That they may be turned into the passive participle in dus is no decisive argument in favour of their being passive, since, although the general meaning in both forms may be similar or nearly so, yet there is a difference in the precise mode of the respective expressions. Thus, if we say In percipiendo fructus, the meaning is active, and is equivalent to Cum percipias fructus. If we say In percipiendis fructibus, the turn of expression seems passive, Cum fructus percipiantur. As active verbs are sometimes used absolutely, or as neuters, so their gerunds are sometimes found having an absolute or apparently neuter signification; thus, Pueros ante urbem lus ûs caus a exercendique producere - Liv. - Quum Jugurtha Tisidium ad imperandum vocaretur—Sall. In the former a personal pronoun may be understood; and in regard to the latter, which some explain by considering ad imperandum as equivalent to ad imperari, or ut ei imperaretur, it may be observed that it seemed to the Romans themselves so contrary to analogy, that Cicero writes "Quare" ades ad imperandum, seu parendum potius: sic enim antiqui loquebantur. Ep. 9. 25. Thus also, if we say Memoria excolendo, sicut alia omnia, augetur-Quinct. the meaning may be not si colatur, but si colas. Yet, if there are some who consider such examples as passive, it is a matter of little consequence. The fol-

lowing are the principal instances which I have seen adduced to prove their passive signification; Athenas quoque crudiendi causa missus-Justin. i. e. for the sake of being instructed, or for the sake of instruction; but this may be interpreted actively, ut eum aliquis erudiat. Carpit enim vires paulatim, uritque videndo femina (bos) - Virg. generally rendered by being seen, or as equivalent to dum videtur; but may not the real meaning be by seeing him? Thus also Charta emporetica inutilis scribendo-Plin, Aqua utilis bibendo-Plin. Res ad judicandum difficilis-Cic. These, however, although the meaning does appear passive, may be interpreted actively. Indeed, no ambiguity arises, in English, from giving them what is, at least in form, an active interpretation; thus, we may say, paper fit for writing, or fit to write upon, while we mean, fit for being written upon; water fit for drinking, or to drink, or fit to be drunk; a matter difficult to decide, &c. That the English gerund, participle, or verbal noun, in ing, has both an active and a passive signification, there can be little doubt. Whether the Latin gerund has precisely a similar import, or whether it is only active, it may be difficult, and, indeed, after all, it is not of much moment, to ascertain.

Rule XLVII. The Gerund in di is governed by substantives, or adjectives: as,

Tempus legendi, Time of reading. Cupidus discendi, Desirous to learn.

Note 1. The substantives are such as amor, causa, gratia, studium, tempus, occasio, ars, facultas, otium, cupido, voluntas, consuetudo, locus, licentia, venia, vis, &c.; thus, Amor habendi—Cic. It is observed, that gratid and causa are generally placed after the gerund: as, Pabulandi causa—Cæs. Purgandi gratia—Cæs. Mala et impia consuetudo, est contra deum disputandi—Cic. but that, when used in any other case than the ablative, they may be placed before: as, Equitatum per causam pabulandi emissum—Cæs.

Note 2. The adjectives are chiefly such as denote desire, know-ledge, remembrance, and their contraries; as peritus, imperitus, cupidus, insuetus, certus, rudis, &c. belonging to Rule XIV: thus, Docendi peritus—Quinct. Certus eundi—Virg. Insuetus navigan-di—Cæs.

Note 3. The infinitive is sometimes used for this gerund, especially by the poets; as Tempus abire, Occasio scribere, &c. for abeundi, scribendi. Studium quibus arva tueri—Virg. Tempus solvere colla—Virg. Sometimes the gerund in dum with ad: as, Facultas ad dicendum—Cic. equivalent to Facultas dicendi.

Note 4. The governing substantive is sometimes understood: as, Cum haberen in animo navigandi—Cic. i. e. propositum. This sometimes happens to participles or gerundives: as, Regium impe-

rium quod initio conservandæ libertatis atque augendæ reipublicæ fuerat—Sall. i. e. causâ.

Note 5. This gerund is sometimes followed by the genitive plural, instead of the accusative. See Rule XLV, Note 4.

RULE XLVIII. The gerund in do of the dative case is governed by adjectives signifying usefulness or fitness: as,

Charta utilis scribendo, Paper useful for writing.

Note 1. Thus also, Charta emporetica est inutilis scribendo—Plin. Ferrum habile tundendo—Plin.

Note 2. The adjective is sometimes suppressed: as, Tu non solvendo eras—Cic. Radix ejus vescendo est—Plin. Supply par, habilis, aptus, or some similar word.

Note 3. This gerund sometimes depends upon a verb: as, Epidicum quærendo operam dabo—Plaut. Ut nec triumviri accipiundo, nec scribæ referundo sufficerent—Liv. Is censendo finis factus est—Liv.

Note 4. Sometimes the gerund in dum with ad is used instead of this construction: as, Quá pecude, quòd erat ad vescendum hominibus apta, nihil genuit natura fœcundius—Cic.

Note 5. This gerund is governed not only by adjectives signifying usefulness, fitness, or the contrary, but by other adjectives also: thus, Illud ediscendo, scribendoque commune est—Quinct. Dat operam ne sit reliquum poscendo atque auferendo—Plaut. Telum, ut fodiendo acuminatum pariter, et sorbendo fistulosum esset—Plin.

Rule XLIX. The Gerund in *dum* of the accusative case is governed by the preposition *ad* or *inter*: as,

Promptus ad audiendum, Ready to hear.

Attentus inter docendum, Attentive in time of teaching.

Note 1. It is likewise sometimes governed by ante, circa, or ob: thus, Ad pænitendum properat qui citò judicat—Publ. Syr. Age, Tityre, et inter agendum... caveto—Virg. Ante domandum Ingentes tollent animos—Virg. Plus eloquentia circa movendum valet—Quinct. A quo pecuniam ob absolvendum acceperis—Cic.

Note 2. As the gerund in dum is the nominative before est, so, consequently, it is the accusative before esse expressed or understood: as, Qui dicerent dignitati esse serviendum, reipublicæ (esse) consulendum—Cic. See Rule XLVI, Note 4.

Note 3. This gerund is sometimes construed with habeo: as, Quum enitendum haberemus, ut quod parentibus datur, et orbis probaretur—Plin. When the accusative is added, the gerundive or participle in dus is used: as, Ut nihil discendum haberes tempore docendi—Plin.

Rule L. The gerund in do of the ablative case is governed by the prepositions a, ab, de, e, ex, or in: as,

Pæna a peccando, absterret, Punishing frightens from sinning.

Note 1. Thus also, Aristotelem non deterruit a scribendo—Cic. De transeundo in Epirum—Cic. Ab revocando ad incitandos hortandosque versus milites—Liv. Er assentando—Ter. Ille quidem in recusando perstabat—Liv. It is, though seldom, governed by pro or cum: as, Pro vapulando abs te mercedem petam—Plaut. Ratio rectè scribendi juncta cum loquendo est—Quinct.

Note 2. The gerund in do, says Mr. Sever, is found governing a genitive: as, Cujus autem in dicendo aliquid reprehensum est-Cic. Here I am inclined to concur in opinion with Dr. Crombie, whose words I take the liberty to use. "That possessive adjectives, and, "consequently, the genitive singular of nouns substantive, are " joined with verbals in io, there can be no question. Thus we " say, dictio mea, ejus dictio, &c. That, for the sake of euphony, "the gerund is sometimes found governing the genitive of the pa-"tient, or subject of the action, is likewise unquestionable: thus, " Studio videndi patrum vestrorum. But I recollect no example, "where the gerund is joined with a possessive adjective, or geni-"tive of a noun substantive, where the person is not the patient, " but the agent; as dicendum meum, ejus dicendum, cujus dicendum. "In truth, these phraseologies appear to me, not only repugnant " to the idiom of the language, but also unfavourable to precision "and perspicuity. The example, which Mr. Seyer has adduced, " of the gerund governing the genitive of the agent, does by no " means authorize his conclusion; for cujus may evidently be go-" verned by aliquid. Nihil ejus, nihil cujus, aliquid ejus, aliquid "cujus, 'nothing of his,' 'nothing of whose,' 'any thing of his,' " &c. are expressions which I need not justify by any quotations; " because to every classical scholar they must be perfectly fami-" liar.

"Mr. Seyer has likewise said that the gerund is in signification the same with the infinitive, or the verbal in io. No two words can be considered as synonymous, or precisely the same in signification, unless they be in all cases interconvertible terms. Now we may say legere est facile, lectio est facilis, but not legendum est facile. To explain the distinction between the gerund and the infinitive or the verbal in io, is beside the present purpose. It is sufficient to observe that they are not used indiscriminately."

Note 3. This gerund may be found, contrary to the opinion of L. Valla, after verbs of motion: as, Ipse a dicendo refugisti—Cic. The gerundive also: as, Non videor omnino a defendendis hominibus sublevandisque discedere—Cic.

RULE LI. Or, the Gerund in do may be used without a preposition, as the ablative of manner or cause: as,

Memoria excolendo augetur—Quinct. The memory is improved by exercising it.

Defessus sum ambulando—Ter. I am wearied with walk-

ing.

Of the Changing of Gerunds into Gerundives or Participles in dus.

Rule LII. Gerunds governing the accusative may be elegantly turned into the participles in *dus*, which agree with their substantives, in gender, number, and case: as,

Petendum est pacem, into Petenda est pax.
Tempus petendi pacem,
Ad petendum pacem,
A petendo pacem,
A petenda pacem.
A petenda pacem.
A petenda pacem.
A petenda pace.

Note 1. Thus also Ejicienda est hæc mollities—Ter. for Ejiciendum est hanc mollitiem. Inita sunt consilia urbis delendæ—Cic. for urbem delendi. Reparandarum classium causa—Suet. for reparandi classes. Rerum suarum——referendarum secum dominis jus fiebat—Liv.——From the two last examples, (and many more might be cited,) it is evident that Valla and Farnabius committed a mistake, when they asserted that, on account of the noisy sound, the gerund in di is seldom changed into the genitive plural of the gerundive¹, but that either the accusative is retained, as in Studio patres vestros videndi, or that the substantive, and not the gerund, is put in the genitive plural, as in Patrum vestrorum videndi studio—Dummodo perpetiendo labor sit idoneus—Colum. for perpetiendo laborem. Quæ valeant ad gloriam adipiscendam—Cic. for adipiscendum. His et quæ taceo duravi sæpe ferendis—Ovid. for hæc ferendo.

Note 2. This rule takes place, only when the verb may govern an accusative: if it governs any other case, the gerund must be used: as, Veritus ne reliquos populares metus invaderet parendi sibi—Sall. Plus penè parcendo victis quàm vincendo, imperium auxisse—Liv. There is, however, an exception in regard to the verbs utor, (perhaps also, alutor,) fruor, fungor, and potior, which, although they do not govern the accusative, (they did so formerly,) are construed according to this rule: thus, Ætas ad hæe utenda idonea—Ter. Justitiæ fruendæ causd—Cic. In omni munere fungendo—Cic. Urbis potundæ cupido—Justin.

Note 3. The gerundives must be in the same case as the gerunds would have been, preserving, however, the gender and number of the substantives.

When a relative follows, the gerund is used; as Hic dies attulit initium dicendi quæ vellem—Cic. not dicendorum eorum quæ vellem.

Note 4. Although the form of expression in which the gerundive is used be the more common, yet examples of the other form frequently occur in Cicero, and in other writers of the best age and authority: thus, Visendi domos potestas—Liv. Petendi consulatum gratiá—Sall. Venit ad recipiendum pecunias—Var. Nunc purgando crimina, nunc quædam fâtendo - - - nunc monendo etiam Patres Conscriptos—Liv. Nullo loco deero, neque ad consolandum neque ad levandum fortunam tuam—Cic. Romam videndi causa—Virg. with many similar instances. Eæ nos lavando operam dederunt—Plaut. is a very uncommon construction.

Note 5. Of the signification of gerunds sufficient notice has been taken in Rule XLVI. And, although a few more instances might be added, tending to confirm the opinion of their passive acceptation, yet there is no doubt that they in general have an active signification, although it is certain there are not wanting examples in which they have, or seem to have, a passive one.

The gerund in dum of the nominative case, is construed by Rule II; the dative following it, by Rule XXV; that in di by Rules XI and XIV: in do of the dative case, by Rule XVI; in dum of the accusative case, by Rule LXVIII; and that of the

ablative, by Rule LXIX, LXXI, or LV.

OF SUPINES.

Rule LIII. The Supine in um, is put after a verb of motion: as,

Abiit deambulatum, He is gone to walk.

Note 1. The supine in um, like the gerund, is a verbal noun; and being, generally, placed after a verb of motion, it denotes the nature of that action to which the motion tends. It commonly retains the signification of the verb in o, whether active or neuter, whence it comes, and governs the same cases: thus, Omnes tonos perditum eunt—Sall. Ut cubitum discessimus—Cic.

Note 2. There are a few expressions in which the supine in um follows a verb not strictly denoting motion, though motion may be considered as implied; such are Do filiam nuptum—Ter. Pamphilam cantatum provocemus—Ter. Cohortes ad me missum facias—Cic. Vos ultum injurias hortor—Sall. Coctum ego, non vapulatum, dudum conductus fui—Plaut. It is likewise put after participles: as, Patriam defensum revocatus—Nep. Spectatum admissi—Hor.

Note 3. There have been various disputes concerning the nature of supines, and the part of speech to which they ought to be referred. The general opinion seems to be, that they are mere verbal nouns; and some think that, although only two cases are commonly mentioned, um of the accusative and u of the ablative, the former used after a verb of motion, and the latter after an adjective noun, they are found in other cases likewise, and even, it is

said, in the plural number. Thus in such phrases as Cautum est; Ventum est, Pugnatum est, Consurrectum est, in which the verb is said to be used impersonally, it is asserted that the nominative is used. Horrendum auditu, Mirabile visu, Collocare nuptui, are said to contain the dative of the supine. In Eo spectatum, Venimus quæsitum, and the like, the accusative is used, governed by ad, which is found sometimes expressed. Dictu opus est—Ter.; Migratu difficilia—Liv.; Parvum dictu, sed immensum æstimatione—Plin.; are considered to contain the ablative governed by in understood.—In regard to their signification, likewise, there have

been differences of opinion.

The general opinion seems to be, that the supine in um signifies actively, when it comes from an active verb, governing the same case as the verb; but that there are a few instances in which it appears to have a passive signification, such as Coctum ego, non vapulatum dudum conductus fui-Plaut. i. e. ut vapularem, sive verberarer. But this cannot, I think, be reckoned a decisive instance, since the supine has here only the passive signification which in the active voice the verb itself possesses. Mulier quæ usurpatum isset—Gell. i. e. quæ usurpata fuisset. The supine in u is said to have an active signification, chiefly when it comes from neuter and deponent verbs: thus, Fædum inceptu, fædum exitu-Liv. i. e. Cum incipit, cum exit. Quia Cæsar rarus egressu-Tacit. i. e. raro egrediebatur. It has been, however, usually considered as passive, and is convertible into the infinitive passive; as, Fessis leviora tolli Pergama Graiis-Hor. 2, 4, for sublatu. Adspici cognoscique dignissimum-Mela. Notwithstanding this, and although it never governs a case, and both supines are considered as coming from the perfect participle in us, which has a passive signification, (originally it had an active one likewise,) it appears to me, that the supine in u may, without materially altering the sense, be interpreted actively. It is generally convertible into a verbal noun, and these are for the most part understood in the sense of the active voice; thus, Auctor dignus lectu, or dignus lectione; as well as dignus legi, dignus quem legas, or dignus qui legatur. Haud magna memoratu res est-Liv. may be either important to be mentioned, or, for me to mention. Acerba fatu--Virg. may be translated bit-

¹ While I mention this as the decision of several celebrated grammarians, I do not pledge myself for the accuracy of their opinion, either in regard to this case, or to the dative. That such words as cautum, ventum, pugnatum, &c. are participles, I entertain little doubt. Those who wish to see the subject discussed are referred to Vossius, Anal. III. 11. and 42, and to Perizonius, p. 441 and 461. The principal objection to the opinion that ventum, and the like, are participles in ventum est, &c. is, that being neuter verbs, they are not supposed to have a passive participle. But if, as such, they admit venitur, they may likewise admit the neuter gender of a passive participle. The truth, I believe, is, that neuter verbs, used impersonally, have perfect participles, which are considered as triptotes, having only the nominative, accusative, and ablative neuter: thus, Statum est, statum esse dicit, opus est stato; thus also, Persuasum est, persuasum esse volo, illis persuaso.

ter to be related, or for me to relate. But, as an ingenious writer observes, "It must be confessed, that every question relating to gerunds and supines is extremely doubtful: whichever side the reader takes, he will find difficulties in accommodating any theory to the practice of writers. They were originally, perhaps, both active and passive, both substantives and participles; some constructions and significations might grow obsolete, other similar ones might be arbitrarily retained; from whence arose that irregular diction which was in use at the time of the best authors, and which can be acquired only by attentive observation."

Note 4. The supine in um with the verb iri constitutes the future of the infinitive passive: as, Brutum, ut scribis, visum iri a me puto-Cic. It never varies its termination; for we do not say Illos occisos iri, but illos occisum iri. Thus used its signification is said by some to be passive; see, however, page 87. It is to be observed, that the future signification arises neither from eo, nor from the supines, but from the connection of both; and that, as the one action depends upon the other, it must necessarily be considered as contingent or future: thus, in Amatum ire and Amatum iri, the former of which some grammarians have considered as present, and the latter, as future, the time of going, as denoted by ire or iri, is present, and as it precedes the action denoted by amatum, it follows that the loving is subsequent or future. In the same way it is, that, by inference, the form "I will love," which is composed of the present tense I will, and the infinitive to love, is considered to express future action in regard to the loving, the performance of the action willed being necessarily subsequent or future to the present action of willing it. For this reason, Cur te is perditum?--Ter. is not to be esteemed equivalent to Cur te perdis? the former implying future destruction, thus, "Why are you about to destroy yourself?" "Why are you going to destroy yourself?" "Why are you acting in such a manner that the consequence will be your destruction?" the latter denoting present destruction, 'Why are you destroying?" or "Why do you destroy yourself?"

Note 5. The supine in um may be resolved into a finite verb with ut; thus, Spectatum veniunt, i. e. ut spectent. Postquam audierat non datum iri filio suo uxorem—Ter. i. e. fore ut uxor non daretur; or, perhaps, rather, fore ut uxorem non darent.

Note 6. This supine may be varied by different constructions: thus, Venit oratum opem. Venit opem orandi causa or gratia!. Venit opis orandæ causa or gratia. Venit ad orandum opem. Venit ad orandam opem. Venit opi orandæ (uncommon). Venit opem oraturus. Venit qui or ut opem oret. Venit opem orare (poetical). To these forms have been added Venit opem orans, and Venit de oranda ope, both supported by classical authorities. But the for-

¹ Where the substantive may be used in the plural, the genitive may be substituted for the accusative; thus, Venit spectandi ludorum causâ. See Rule XLV, Note 4.

mer does not appear to me to be precisely equivalent in sense to Venit oratum open or to the others, as it simply denotes "He comes begging assistance," which does not imply that the intention or purpose of the coming is to beg assistance, but merely that the coming and the begging are concomitant or co-existent acts.

Rule LIV. The Supine in u is put after an adjective noun: as

Facile dictu, Easy to tell, or, to be told.

Note 1. Thus also, Nec visu facilis, nec dictu affabilis ulli—Virg. Quod optimum factu videbitur, facies—Cic.

Note 2. It is sometimes, but rarely, found after fas, nefas, and opus: as, Hoc fas est dictu—Cic. Nefas visu—Ovid. Ita dictu opus est—Ter. Scitu opus est—Cic. Prudentius has used scelus in like manner: as, Quod dictu scelus est. It may be observed that these have the force of adjectives, and are equivalent to licitum, illicitum, necessarium, scelestum.

Note 3. It is sometimes put after verbs signifying motion from a place: as, Primus cubitu surgat, primus cubitum eat—Cato. It is likewise found after other verbs. Those, however, who make a distinction between supines and verbal nouns of the fourth declension, will be inclined to refer such forms to the latter denomination.

Note 4. It seems to be sometimes used for a dative case: as, Aut mala tactu Vipera delituit—Virg. Omnia postremò bona sensibus et mala tactu—Lucr. Hæc res neutiquam neglectu est mihi—Ter. These may be considered either as the supines, or ablative case governed by a preposition understood, or they may be datives, as it is well known that the dative of the fourth declension antiently ended in u.

Note 5. The supine in u, as has been already mentioned, is in reality the ablative of a verbal noun governed by a preposition understood; and it generally follows adjectives governing either the dative or ablative, such as affabilis, bonus, dignus, indignus, facilis, difficilis, jucundus, injucundus, pulcher, utilis, fædus, turpis, rarus, horrendus, gravis, asper, &c. Thus, Res horrenda relatu—Ovid. may be horrenda in relatu. Cubitu surgat may be a cubitu. Quintilian uses in the same sense Nec in receptu difficilis. Virgil has Vesper è pastu vitulos ad tecta reducit, in both which the preposition is expressed.

Note 6. This supine is convertible into the infinitive: thus, Ardua imitatu, cæterùm cognosci utilia—Val. Max. for utilia cognitu. Indeed, as the second supine is used absolutely, that is, does not govern a case, the infinitive is commonly used when the energy of the verb is intended to pass to an object.——Into the gerund in dum with ad: as, Illud autem facile ad credendum est—Cic. It is

observed that this form is chiefly preferred either when there is no supine, or when, if there be one, it cannot be used on account of the words dependent upon the action of the verb.—Into a verbal noun: thus, Opus proscriptione dignum—Plin. After verbs of motion it is observed that the verbal noun is much more frequently used than this supine: as, A decimæ legionis cohortatione profectus—Cæs. Jam Ætoli a populatione Acarnaniæ Stratum redierant—Liv. Indeed, in these the supine could not be used, on account of the genitives depending upon the verbals, since the supine, as such, governs neither a genitive like a substantive, nor any case as part of a verb. The verbals are also used in the dative: as, Aqua potni jucunda—Plin. Or in the accusative with ad: as, Tanquam mediocritas præceptoris ad intellectum atque imitationem sit facilior—Quinct.

Note 7. The supine in um commonly follows verbs of motion; the infinitive, other verbs; the gerund in dum with ad, follows adjective nouns. This last form is, however, frequently met with after verbs of motion; and the poets use also the infinitive after adjectives.—The supine in u and the present infinitive passive are thus distinguished: the former has generally an adjective before it; the latter has not, unless sometimes among the poets. Indeed, gerunds, supines, and the infinitive, being considered as verbal nouns substantive, it is not wonderful, that, in many instances, the one noun may be used for the other, as they are all derived from the same original.

ON THE CONSTRUCTION OF CIRCUMSTANCES.

Circumstances are five; Cause, Manner, Instrument, Place, and Time; and they are common both to verbs and nouns.

The Cause, Manner, and Instrument.

RULE LV. The Cause, Manner, and Instrument, are put in the ablative: as,

Palleo metu, I am pale with fear.

Fecit suo more, He did it after his own way.

Scribo calamo, I write with a pen.

Note 1. Thus also, Cause; as, Pallet amore—Hor. To this refer such expressions as Insignis pietate, Major et maximus natu, Natione Syrus, &c. Oppidum nomine Bibrax—Cæs. Naturd tu illi pater, consiliis ego—Ter. Some of these may be referred to the Manner.—Manner: as, More majorum—Sall. Lento gradu ad vindictam sui divina procedit ira—Val. Max.—Instrument: as, Naturam expellas furca—Hor. Cæsus est virgis—Cic. Some refer to the Instrument, the means, as in Amicos observantici, rem

parsimonia retinuit—Cic. but such ablatives are better referred to the Cause or Manner.

Note 2. The Cause is known by putting the question Why? or Wherefore? The Manner, by How? And the Instrument, by Wherewith?

Note 3. The Cause sometimes takes the prepositions per, propter, ob; de, e, ex, præ: as, Depulsus per invidiam—Cic. Ea suspicio propter hanc causam fuit—Cic. Ob adulterium cæsi—Virg. Indeed, in some cases the preposition seems almost indispensable: thus we should say Colo te ob vel propter virtutem, rather than virtute. When the cause is a person, this preposition must be generally used: as, Non est a quum me propter vos decipi—Ter.—Fessus de vid—Cic. Vacillare ex vino—Quinct. Nec loqui præ mærore potuit—Cic. Sometimes a or ab is used: as, Animus tumida fervelat ab ird—Ovid. but these refer to the word considered rather as the agent, than as the cause.

Note 4. The Manner is sometimes expressed by a, al, cum, de, ex, per: as, Quem celer adsuetd versat ab arte puer—Tibul. Cum videret oratores cum severitate audiri, poetas autem cum voluptate—Cic. Diadema gestavit de more rituque priscæ religionis—Suct. Id non fieri ex verd vitá, neque adeo ex æquo et bono—Ter. Quod iter per provinciam per vim tentâssent—Cæs.

Note 5. The Instrument, properly so called, scarcely ever admits the preposition: thus we do not say Interfecit eum cum gladio, but gladio only. But, when the Instrument is spoken of not strictly as material but as equivalent to the cooperating means, cum may be used: as, Cum meis copiis omnibus vexavi Amanienses -- Cic.² Among the poets, however, a or ab is sometimes used: as, Pectora trajectus ab ense—Ovid. Other prepositions, as sub, de, or in, are sometimes prefixed to the instrument: as, Exercere solum sub vomere-Virg. De manu cibos et aquam præbere--Co-But in this last, manu does not so much denote the instrument by which the thing is done, as the place whence it is given. The Vulgate has Visitabo in virgal peccata corum, and the like, which are Hebraisms. - Sanctius observes, that cum is not placed before the Instrument, lest it might occasion ambiguity. if we were to write Tetigi eum cum hasta, it might be doubtful whether the meaning were, "I touched him with (and) the spear," or, "I touched him with (i. e. he was touched by me with) a spear." For this reason cum is omitted, unless when the meaning is along with, and the examples cited to prove the contrary either are suspicious, or imply a different sense.

Note 6. The ablative of the Instrument is to be distinguished from the ablative of concomitancy, which is generally expressed

¹ Sallust has Multa cum suo animo volvebat and Cum animo reputans.

² It was noticed, under the construction of passive verbs, that per generally refers to the means or secondary cause, a or ab to the source or original cause; as in Per Thrusybulum Lyci filium, ab exercitu recipitur—Nep.

with cum: as, Desinant obsidere cum gladiis curiam—Cic.¹ To this may be referred certain expressions in which the Instrument, used in a general sense, the Manner, the Adjunct, or the like, is denoted: as, Quid incipit facere cum tantis minis—Plaut. Cognovi te Romam venisse cum febri—Cic. Ira procul absit, cum qua nihil rectè fieri potest—Cic. Cum curd legere—Plaut. Cum fide persolvere—Suet. But in such instances the preposition is sometimes omitted: as, Multitudine Numidarum castra circumvenit—Sall. Sese omnibus armis In fluvium dedit—Virg.

Note 7. To this rule are referred the ablatives of the adjunct, the matter of which any thing is made, and of the part affected: as, Lepore, et humanitate, omnibus præstitit Socrates-Cic. cavo clypeus--Virg. Æger pedibus-Quinct. And also many other constructions, which have been mentioned under other rules: such as Afficere aliquem honore, Persegui odio, Gaudere equis, Delibutus gaudio, &c .--- It is to be observed, however, that the adjunct sometimes takes a preposition; and that the matter is generally put in the ablative with de, e, or ex: as, Interea cum Musis nos delectabimus—Cic. Templum de marmore—Virg. Candela-brum factum e gemmis—Cic. Naves totæ factæ ex robore—Cæs. Sometimes the matter is put in the genitive: as, Nummus argenti; crateres argenti-Pers. in which the genitive may be governed by ex re, or ex materia, understood. This seems an imitation of the Greek construction, according to which they write Tor δίφρον ἐποίησεν ἰσχυρῶν ξύλων-Xen. i. e. He built a chariot of strong wood; in which the genitive is, in reality, governed by ἐκ or ἀπό, understood, but sometimes expressed.

Note 8. The ablatives of this rule, though used without a preposition, are governed by one understood, as is sufficiently manitest from observing the construction of the vulgar languages, in which it is always expressed.

Of Place.

RULE LVI. The name of a town is put in the genitive, when the question is made by *Ubi*, [Where]: as,

Vixit Romæ, He lived at Rome. Mortuus est Londini, He died at London.

Note 1. That is, the continuance or abode in or at a town is put in the genitive, if the name be of the first or second declension: as, Quid Romæ faciam—Juv. Is habitat Mileti—Ter. It is observed, however, that when the name is of the first declension, and ends in e, it is better to change the termination into a, and to say Negotiatur Mitylenæ, than Mitylenes, or, supplying the ellipsis, in urbe Mitylenes.

¹ Cæsar writes, Cæsar subsequebatur omnibus copiis.

Note 2. Humi¹, militiæ and belli (domi will be hereafter noticed) are also construed in the genitive, when the question is made by ubi, the words in solo, in loco, or tempore, being understood: as, Et humi nascentia fraga—Virg. i. e. in solo. Prosternite humi juvenem—Ovid. i. e. ad solum vel terram, in which it is to be observed, that humi answers to the question Quò, denoting motion to a place. Unà semper militiæ et domi fuimus—Ter. It is likewise to be observed, that domi militiæque is the usual form and order of the expression. Belli domique agitabatur—Sall. in which in loco seems understood. To these may be added duelli, terræ and foci, which are said to be found, very rarely however, used in this way: thus, Quæ domi duellique male fecisti—Plaut. Cum vellet terræ procumtere—Ovid. Here, however, terræ may be the dative. Domi focique—Ter. But these are not to be imitated.

Note 3. The names of towns belonging to this rule are sometimes, though very rarely, expressed in the ablative: as, Hujus exemplar Roma nullum habenus—Vitruv. for Roma. Rex Tyro decedit—Justin. for Tyri. Pons, quem ille Alydo fecerat—Justin.

Note 4. It is observed, that, when at denotes near or about a place, the preposition ad is used: as, Bellum quod ad Trojam gesserat—Virg.

Note 5. This rule is elliptical, in urbe, in oppido, or the like, being understood. On which account, we cannot say Natus est Romæ urbis celebris, but Romæ in celebri urbe, or in Romæ celebri urbe, or in Romæ celebri urbe; or, (but not so often,) Romæ celebri urbe, which several forms are sanctioned by classical authority.

Rule LVII. But if the name of the town be of the third declension, or of the plural number, it is put in the ablative: as,

Habitat Carthagine, He dwells at Carthage. Studuit Parisis, He studied at Paris.

Note 1. Thus also, Alexander Babylone mortuus est—Cic. Carthagine fuit—Cic. Quoniam Delphis oracula cessant—Juv. It has appeared to some grammarians, that nouns of the third declension are sometimes put in the dative, by the figure Antiptosis, be-

¹ Mr. Jones (Lat. Gram. p. 96) observes, that "the nouns humi, domi, belli, militiae, were originally written humoi, domoi, belloi, militiae; but, by dropping the preceding instead of the last vowel, they became by accident the genitive instead of the ablative, humo, domo, bello, militia, which the sense requires." To form the ablative of the last, the final i must be removed, or supposed subscribed. Domo is certainly found where the usual rule requires domi; and names of towns, belonging to this rule, may be found in the ablative. May not, then, originally, these names of towns have been generally expressed in the ablative, which seems their natural or appropriate case, as well as those belonging to the third declension, or of the plural number?

cause we find Convento Antonio Tiburi—Cic. Nulla Lacedæmoni tam est nobilis vidua—Nep. Ego aio hoc fieri in Græcid et Carthagini—Plaut. But these are old ablatives similar to ruri for rure.

Note 2. The ablative is governed by the preposition in, which is sometimes expressed: as, In Philippis Thessalus quidam ei de futurd victorià nunciavit—Suet. Complures [naves] in Hispali faciendas curavit—Cæs.

RULE LVIII. When the question is made by Quo, [Whither,] the name of a town is put in the accusative: as,

Venit Romam, He came to Rome. Profectus est Athenas, He went to Athens.

- Note 1. That is, Motion to a town is put in the accusative: as, Carthaginem rediit—Cic. Et indè primum Elidem, deinde Thebas venit—Nep. Capuam iter flectit—Liv.
- Note 2. The dative is seldom found: as, Carthagini nuncios mittam—Hor.
- Note 3. Names of towns are sometimes put after verbs of telling and giving, words which imply a sort of motion: as, Roman erat nunciatum—Cic. Messanam literas dedit—Cic.
- Note 4. It has been observed by Sanctius and Scioppius, that Quo is an antient accusative similar to ambo and duo, and still continued in quocirca, quoad, &c., so that when we say quò vadis, in or ad is understood. Hence, the government of the accusative of this rule is obvious. The preposition is often expressed: as, Consilium in Lutetiam Parisiorum transfert—Cxx. Ad doctas proficisci Athenax—Propert. It is almost needless to reply to the objection, that ad signifies merely at, and that in means only in, since it is so well known, that, although this be the case, when something is denoted as situated near or in a place, they are likewise used to denote motion to a place.

Rule LIX. If the question be made by *Unde*, [Whence,] or *Quà* [By or through what place,] the name of a town is put in the ablative: as,

Discessit Corintho, Laodiceá iter faciebat, He departed from Corinth. He went through Laodicea.

- Note 1. Thus also, Accepi Româ literas—Cic. Multis viris fortibus Tolosa, Carcasone, et Narbone nominatim evocatis—Cæs. Iter Laodiceá faciebam—Cic. Quæsitis Samo, Ilio, Erythris, per Africam etiam ac Siciliam et Italicas colonias, carminibus Sibyllæ— Tac.
- Note 2. When the question is made by quà, per is frequently used, in order to avoid ambiguity: as, Cum iter per Thebas face-ret—Nep. But when the verb is compounded with trans, it may

be omitted: as, Cum Gracchus Pometium transiret—Cic. in which the accusative is governed by the preposition in composition.

Note 3. The ablative is governed by a or ab, or by in denoting a sort of continued or protracted motion equivalent to that which is expressed by through.

Note 4. The foregoing rules concerning names of towns may be thus recapitulated: the name of a town after in or at is put in the genitive, unless it be of the third declension or plural number, for then it is put in the ablative; after to or unto, (the latter preposition is obsolescent,) it is put in the accusative; and after from or through, in the ablative.

Of Domus and Rus.

Rule LX. *Domus* and *Rus* are construed the same way as names of towns: as,

Ubi? Manet domi, Where? He stays at home. (Rule LVI.) Vivit rure or ruri, He lives in the country. (Rule LVII.) Quo? Domum revertitur, Whither? He returns home. (Rule LVIII.) He has gone to Abiit rus. the country. Unde? Domo arcessitus sum, Whence? I am called from (Rule home. LIX.) He has returned Rediit rure. from the coun-

Note 1. Thus also: Ubi? Domi industria, foris justum imperium—Sall. Rure ego viventem, tu dicis in urbe beatum—Hor. Ruri agere vitam—Ter. Ruri is more frequently used than rure; but both are used, in prose as well as in poetry, by the best classical writers.—Quo? Ite domum—Virg. Also, after verbs in which motion is not so evidently expressed: as, Cum dabis posthac aliquid domum literarum mei memineris—Cic. Rus ibo—Ter. Cum rus ex urbe evolavissent—Cic.—Unde? Nuncius ei domo venit—Nep. Qui se domo non commoverunt—Cic. Consilium domo petere—Cic. Metuo pater ne rure redierit—Ter.

Note 2. Do mi does not admit any adjectives to be joined to it, but mea, tua, sua, nostra, vestra, aliena: as, Apud eum sie fui, tanquam domi mea—Cic. Multos annos domi nostra vixit—Cic.

Nonne mavis sine periculo domi tuæ esse, qu'àm cum periculo alienæ—Cic.

Note 3. With other adjectives domo is used, generally with the preposition in: as, Sustinct in viduâ tristia signa domo—Ovid. But Clamor interea fit totâ domo—Cic. without the preposition.

Note 4. When domus is followed by a genitive denoting the possessor, either domi, or the ablative with a preposition, may be used: as, Deprehensus est domi, or, in domo, Cæsaris—Cic. ad Att.—Domo is sometimes used absolutely for domi: as, Abde domo—Virg. Domo me tenui—Cic. We also find, Nec densa nascitur humo—Col.

Note 5. When the question is made by quo, the preposition may be either expressed or understood, when domus has the possessives meus, tuus, suus, &c. joined to it, or is followed by the genitive of the possessor : as, Recta à portâ domum meam venisse ; neque hoc admiror, quod non ad tuam potius, sed illud, quod non ad suam—Cic. Cum prima luce Pomponii domum venisse dicitur -Cic. Jubeo ad prætoris domum ferri-Cic.-With other adjectives the preposition is generally expressed: as, Omnes ad eam domum profecti sunt—Cic. Si in domum meretriciam deducar -Ter. Yet. Sallust has Aurum atque argentum, et alia quæ prima ducuntur, domum regiam comportant-Jug. 76, 6, without the preposition. — When motion from a place is signified, a similar construction seems to be followed: thus we say Profectus est domo meâ, tuâ, &c. or, e or a domo meâ, tuâ, &c.: but not Profectus est domo opulentà, magnificà, &c., but e or a domo opulentà, Thus also: Me domo med expulistis. Cn. Pompeium domum suam compulistis—Cic. Remigrare in domum veterem e novd-Cic. Ad quem è domo Cæsaris tam multa delata sunt-Cic. In some of these, it appears to me that the variation of the construction may perhaps arise from some little difference in the significations of domus as denoting both home, figuratively, and a house, primarily.

Note 6. Domos, when with the above-mentioned possessives, is generally construed without a preposition: as, Alius alium domos suas invitant—Sall. But when with other adjectives, the preposition is generally expressed: as, Quibus aqua in privatas domos inducitur—Hirt. B. Alex. Inque domos superas scandere cura fuit—Ovid. Yet, Propertius has Ulteriusque domos vadere Memnonias. i. 6, 4. Iret ut Esonias aurea lana domos. iii. 9, 12.

Note 7. Rura is always preceded by a preposition: as, Jam ubi vos dilapsi domos, et in rura vestra eritis—Liv. But rus and rure, even with an adjective, are found without a preposition: as, Equum conscendit, et rus urbanum contendit—Justin. Quartumque apud lapidem suburbano rure substiterat—Tac. Rure is found with a preposition: as, Ex rure in urbem revertebatur—Cic.

Note 8. Domi is said to be governed by in ædibus: the other

cases of domus, and those of rus, are governed by prepositions understood, and which, as has been shown, are frequently expressed.

Rule LXI. To names of countries, provinces, and other places, (towns generally excepted,) the preposition is com-

monly added: as,

Ubi? { Natus in Italia, in Latio, in urbe, &c. } Where? { Born in Italy, in Latium, in a city, &c. }

Quo? { Abiit in Italiam, in or ad urbem, &c. } Whither? { He is gone to Italy, to Latium, to a city, &c. }

Unde? { Rediit ex Italia, e Latio, ex urbe, &c. } Whence? { He is returned from Italy, from Latium, from a city, &c. }

Qua? { Transiit per Italiam, per Latium, per urbem, &c. }

Through what city, &c. }

He passed through Italy, through Latium, through a city, &c.

Note 1. That is, The preposition is commonly expressed before the names of the larger places, such as countries, provinces, islands, and the like: before the proper names of villages, mountains, rivers, seas, woods, &c.; and before appellatives: as, Ubi? In Italia—Cic. In Lemno—Ter. In Formiano—Cic. Lucus in urbe fuit-Virg. Quo? Nobis iter est in Asiam--Cic. Te in Epirum venisse gaudeo-Cic. Annibal ad portas venisset-Cic. Unde? Ab Europa petis Asiam; ex Asia transis in Europam-Curt. Ex urbe tu rus habitatum migres-Ter. Qua? Iter in Ciliciam facio per Cappadociam-Cic. Per totum terrarum orbem manavit-V. Max. -- But these are sometimes expressed without a preposition: as, Ubi? Septimum jam diem Corcyræ tenebamur -Cic. Quæ mihi jam Sami, sed mirabilem in modum Ephesi, præsto fuit-Cic. Numidiæ facinora ejus memorat-Sall. Quo? Inde Sardiniam cum classe venit-Cic. Navigare Ægyptum pergit-Liv. At nos hinc alii sitientes ibimus Afros: Pars Scythiam, et rapidum Cretæ veniemus Oaxen, Et penitus toto divisos orbe Britannos -Virg. Lavinaque venit Littora-Virg. Verba refers aures non pervenientia nostras-Ovid. Unde? Literæ deinde Macedonia allatæ-Liv. Ut Juded profecti rerum potirentur-Suet. Tum poterat manibus summâ tellure revelli - Ovid. Atque imo Nereus ciet æquora fundo-Virg. Qua? Tota Asia vagatur-Cic. Manat tota urbe rumor-Liv. Ibam forte via sacra-Hor. Sometimes the accusative is found, per, or some other preposition, being understood: as, Ino etiam prima terras ætate vagata est-Propert. Tyrrhenum navigat æquor-Virg. But, notwithstanding the really intransitive nature of the verbs, such accusatives are sometimes said to be governed by them.

Note 2. It has been seen in the preceding rules, that the names of towns are generally found without a preposition: but it is very often expressed: as, Ubi? In Stymphalo mortuus est Terentius-Suet. Dum apud Zamam certatur-Sall. Quo? Postquam hinc in Ephesum abii-Plaut. Profectus sum ad Capuam-Cic. Grammarians mention a difference between Venit Romam and Venit ad Romam. The former, they say, denotes that he entered Rome; the latter, merely that he came to it. But there are not wanting instances to show that ad is sometimes used also when entrance is intended: as, Magni interest, quamprimum ad urbem me venire-Cic. in which it is most probable that entrance is referred to. He also says, Brundusium veni, vel potius ad mænia accessi, in which it is evident, from the words following, that access only is intended; Urbem unam mihi amicissimam declinavi: and that, otherwise, if ad always denoted vicinity, it would have been sufficient to say Ad Brundusium veni. But, however, the distinction is generally observed: as, "Quum ad me venissent in castra ad Iconium-Cic."—Unde? Ex Epheso huc ad meum sodalem literas misi-Plaut. A Brundusio nulla fama venerat-Cic. When the question is made by unde, the preposition is very often expressed. Grammarians mention a difference between Venit Romd, and Venit a Romd, asserting that the former denotes coming from the inside, the latter from the outside or vicinity; but this distinction is often neglected. It has been already mentioned, that, when the question is made by Qua, the preposition per is generally used. With respect to the names of towns, it is to be observed, that, if an adjective or an appellative be added, the preposition is generally expressed: as, Magnum iter ad doctas proficisci cogor Athenas-Propert. Ad Cirtam oppidum iter constituunt-Sall. In Hispali oppido-Plin. But even in such cases, the poets sometimes omit it: as, Tyria Carthagine qui nunc Exspectat—Virg. It is also with propriety omitted by prose writers, when other words are depending upon the adjective, or when a possessive pronoun is used: as, Capuam flectit iter, luxuriantem longa felicitate &c .-Liv. Malo vel cum timore domi esse, quam sine timore Athenis tuis —Cic. It is sometimes omitted, and sometimes expressed, before compound names of towns; as, Inde Carthaginem Novam in hiberna Annibalem concessisse-Liv. In Alba Helvia inventa est vitis -Plin. It has been already mentioned, that prepositions are frequently added to domus and rus; and that ad is generally used when vicinity is denoted. It may be added, that a similar remark is applicable to apud; but that, although these two are often used indifferently, the former denotes more particularly juxta, or in proximo loco, close by; the latter circa or prope, about or near.—From this, and the preceding Note, it appears, that the practice of the best writers, in regard to the use of prepositions before the proper names of places, is very capricious; that, before the names of provinces, countries, &c. with which they are

generally expressed, they are sometimes understood, and before those of towns or cities, with which they are generally omitted, they are sometimes expressed 1.

Note 3. It is almost unnecessary to observe, that, although peto is used before the names of towns, in the signification of going, yet, as it is an active verb, denoting to seek, it governs the accusative without a preposition: as, Vento petière Mycenas—Virg. Ægyptum petere decrevit—Curt. He resolved to go to Ægypt, or, literally, He resolved to seek Ægypt. Thus also, with an appellative, Sævæque petunt Tritonidis arcem—Virg.

Note 4. The adverb versus, when used, is always put after the names of places, sometimes with, but oftener without, the preposition ad or in: as, Ad Oceanum versus proficisci jubet—Cæs. In Italiam versus navigaturus erat—Cic. Amanum versus profecti sumus—Cic.

Note 5. The abverb usque is frequently joined to the names of places, when the question is made by Quo, or Unde, the prepositions ad, a, ab, e, ex, de being sometimes expressed and sometimes understood; as, Usque ad Numantiam—Cic. Usque Ennam profecti—Cic. Usque è Persia—Plaut. Usque Tmolo petivit—Cic. Thus also, with in and trans: as, Usque in Pamphiliam—Cic. Trans Alpes usque transferri—Cic. Instead of usque ad, and usque ab, the poets sometimes say adusque, abusque: as, Adusque columnas, Abusque Pachyno—Virg. and Tacitus has Animalia maris Oceano abusque petiverat—Ann. xv. 37, 2, in which the compound word is put after the ablative which it governs.

Of Space, or the Distance of Place.

RULE LXII. The distance of one place from another is put in the accusative; and sometimes in the ablative: as, Jam mille passus processeram, I had now advanced a mile.

Abest ab urbe quingentis millibus passuum, He is five hundred miles distant from the city.

Note 1. Thus also, Cum abessem ab Amano iter unius diei—Cic. Ventidius bidui spatio abest ab eo—Cic. To this rule may be referred such expressions as Ire viam longam, Septingenta millia passuum ambulare, Tres pateat cœli spatium non ampliùs ulnas—Virg. &c.

¹ Servius, taking notice that the rules of grammar require prepositions to be joined to the names of provinces, but not to the names of towns, adds Sciendum tamen usurpatum ab autoribus ut vel addant, vel detrahant præpositiones. It may, however, be observed, that the rules of grammar can require nothing beyond the usage of authors, (by which he, doubtless, means prose writers as well as poets,) since grammar was rather formed from them, than for them. Si volet usus, Quem penes arbitrium est, et jus, et norma loquendi—Hor.

Note 2. One of the substantives, expressing the distance, is sometimes omitted: as, Castra, quæ aberant bidui—Cic. i. e. spatium, iter, viam; or spatio, itinere, vid.

Note 3. When the place where a thing is done, is denoted only by its distance, the distance is either expressed in the ablative generally without a preposition, or in the accusative with ad; as, Millibus passuum duobus ultra eum castra fecit—Cæs. Non jam à tertio lapide, sed ipsas Carthaginis portas obsidione quatiebat—Flor. Cum ad tertium milliarium consedisset—Cic. But these last seem to denote rather the place itself, than the distance of one place from another.

Note 4. The excess of measure or distance is put in the ablative only: as, Superat capite et cervicibus altis—Virg. See Rule XVIII. Note 2.

Note 5. The word of distance is governed in the accusative by ad or per understood, and in the ablative, by a or ab. All these are sometimes expressed, except perhaps the first: as, Per tota novem cui jugera corpus porrigitur—Virg. A millibus passuum minus duobus castra posuerunt—Cæs. But it may be observed, that, in the last, the question is made as well by ubi, (where,) as by quanto intervallo, at what distance.

Of Time.

Rule LXIII. Time is put in the ablative, when the question is made by Quando [When?]: as,

Venit hora tertiá. He came at three o'clock.

Note 1. That is, the noun denoting a precise term of time, and answering to the question, When? is put in the ablative: as Nocte latent mendæ—Ovid. Initio per internuncios colloquitur—Nep. To which may be referred mane, diluculo, noctu: sero, raro, primo, postremo, (tempore being understood.) quotannis, &c. words generally deemed adverbs, and also the old ablatives luci or lucu, tempori, vesperi. In the antiquated phrases, die quinti, septimi, pristini, crastini, there is probably an ellipsis of solis.

Note 2. When the question is made by Quanto tempore, or Intra quantum tempus, (in what time?) time is put in the ablative: as, Triduo audietis—Cic. Quatuor tragædias sexdecim diebus absolvisse cum scribas—Cic. Quod oppidum paucis diebus, quibus ed ventum erat, expugnatum cognoverant—Cæs. This is little different from the question by quando.

Note 3. The part of time is frequently expressed by the prepositions in, de, ad, per, intra: as, In tempore ad eam veni—Ter. Ut jugulent homines, surgunt de nocte latrones—Hor. Præstò fuit ad horam destinatam—Cic. Duo fuerunt per idem tempus—Cic.

A word, when it implies time, falls within this rule; as Bello Allobrogum proximo—Cass.

Consul intra paucos dies moritur—Liv. It is likewise expressed with other prepositions, such as circa, circiter, prope, cis, in with the accusative, ante, post, sub, cum, due attention being paid to their several meanings.

Note 4. Abhinc is found with an accusative, or ablative, without a preposition, ante being understood to the former, and in, to the latter: as, Hoc factum est abhinc biennium—Plaut. Quo tempore? Abhinc annis quatuor—Cic.

Note 5. The English in is sometimes expressed by post: as, He will return in six years, Post sexennium redibit—Cic. But, when the in can be omitted, without altering the sense, the noun of time is put in the ablative: as In the following month, or The following month, Mense proximo. In such expressions as one, two, three o'clock, &c., the ordinal numbers are used instead of the cardinal: as, At one o'clock precisely, Horá ipsá primâ, and the same change may be made in such expressions as, He had been consul three years before: thus, Tertio is antè anno consul fuerat.

Note 6. In such phrases as Profectus est id temporis—Cic. Isthuc ætatis—Ter. Illud horæ—Suet. used for eo tempore, isthac ætate, illå horå, there seems to be an ellipsis of ad or circa, and of some general substantive, such as negotium or tempus.

Note 7. It is evident that the ablative is governed by some preposition understood, and which, as has been already shown, is often expressed.

RULE LXIV. When the question is made by Quamdiu, [How long?] time is put in the accusative, or ablative; but oftener in the accusative: as,

Mansit paucos dies, Sex mensibus abfuit, He was absent six months.

Note 1. That is, Words denoting the duration of time, and answering to the question, How long? are put in the accusative, or ablative, but generally in the accusative: as, Duces diliguntur, qui unà cum Sertorio omnes annos fuerant—Cæs. Quatuor horis neutrò inclinata est pugna—Liv. To this rule is referred the question by Quamdudum, [How long ago?] in such examples as Abhinc triennium commigravit huc viciniæ—Ter.

Note 2. The prepositions per, ad, in, intra, inter, are frequently expressed: as, Quem per annos decem aluimus—Cic. Si ad centesimum annum vixisset—Cic. In diem vivere—Cic. In dies, in singulas horas, in posterum, in æternum, &c. It is observed, that, in such instances with ad and in, the prepositions cannot be omitted; and that they particularly mark the boundary or extent of time, answering rather to the question Quousque, Till what time, than to the question Quamdiu—Qui intra annos quatuor-

¹ It is observed, that, in examples answering to the question by Quamdudum, Quampridem, or A quo tempore, the particle abhine is usually expressed.

decim tectum non subjerint—Cæs. Quæ inter decem annos nefarie flagitiosèque facta sunt—Cic. The difference between Intra decem annos, i. e. Within ten years, and Inter decem annos, i. e. During ten years, seems to be, that the former does not imply the whole ten years, but within or less than that space, while the latter denotes the entire period.

Note 3. The manner of supplying the ellipsis in the following, and in similar expressions, should be attended to: Annos natus unum et viginti—Cic. i. e. ante. Tyrus septimo mense, quàm oppugnari cæpta erat, capta est—Curt. i. e. post. Minus diebus triginta in Asiam reversus est—Nep. i. e. quàm in. Siculi quot annis tributa conferant—Cic. i. e. tot annis quot or quotquot sunt. It is observable, that the words answering to more, before, or after, amplius, ante, or post, do not influence the case of time: as, Tertium ampliùs annum docet. Fit paucis post annis—Cic. i. e. quàm per annum; and in annis.

Note 4. It has been observed, that the continuance of time may be found in the genitive, as in Trium mensium molita cibaria sibi quemque domo afferre jubent—Cæs. But it appears to me, that, although duration may be here inferred, the genitive expresses only its usual relation; thus "food belonging to three months," "food for three months," or "the food of three months." If this be not allowed, there is an ellipsis of pro tempore or pro spatio.

Note 4. This construction is elliptical, the accusative depending upon per, in, inter, intra, or ad understood, but sometimes expressed, and the ablative, upon in understood, but which is scarcely found expressed.

Of the Ablative Absolute.

RULE LXV. A substantive and a participle whose case depends upon no other word, are put in the ablative absolute: as,

Sole oriente, fugiunt tenebræ,
Opere peracto, ludemus,

The sun rising, (or, while the sun
riseth,) darkness flies away.
Our work being finished, (or when
our work is finished,) we will play.

Note 1. That is, When two parts of a sentence respect different persons or things, or, when one event referring to another is not connected with it by proper particles, but is expressed by a noun and a participle constituting the subject of no verb, these are put in the ablative absolute: as, Hac oratione habitâ, consilium dimisit—Cæs. Suffragante Theramene, plebiscito restituitur—Nep. Cæsare venturo, Phosphore, redde diem—Mart. When the participle in dus, or rather the gerundive, is found in the ablative with a noun, it arises from the construction of manner, rather than from the nature of this rule.

This ablative is named absolute, because, grammatically, it depends upon no word expressed in the sentence; for, if the substantive with which the participle is joined be the nominative to some following verb, or be governed by any word going before, then this rule does not take place. The usual signs, in English, of this ablative, are whilst, when, after, having, being, or some other word in ing; sometimes, however, the participle in ed, being being understood: as, "The enemy conquered, we shall live."

Note 2. The antient ente or existente is frequently understood, another noun or pronoun being joined in concordance: as, Quid sine imperatore, adolescentulo duce, efficere possent—Cæs. i. e. existente, a stripling (being) their leader. Nihil te ad me scripsisse postea admiror, præsertim tam novis rebus—Cic. Me suasore atque impulsore, hoc factum—Plaut. Thus also, Deo duce, Invitâ Minerva, &c.

Note 3. Sometimes the participle only is expressed, in which case the sentence supplies the place of the substantive, or negotiô, or some other word, is understood: as, Excepto, quòd non simul esses, cætera lætus—Hor. Uxorum flagitatione revocantur, per legatos denuntiantibus, ni redeant, subolem se ex finitimis quæsituras—Justin. for denuntiantium. But this construction, in which uxoribus or ipsis is understood, seldom occurs, and is not to be imitated. There is one instance in Sallust, in which a nominative seems to be placed absolutely; Exercitus, amisso duce, ac passim multis sibi quisque imperium petentibus, brevì dilabitur—Jug. 18, 3. But it is conjectured that quisque may be used for quisque or quibusque. A few similar anomalies might be mentioned.

Note 4. In such antiquated phrases as Nobis præsente—Plaut. Absente nobis—Ter. in which some grammarians consider the participle as an indeclinable word, or a preposition, it may be observed, that, if the sense is not correctly expressed, the rules of Syntax seem to be still less regarded.

Note 5. When the verb is passive, having is necessarily changed into being: as, Cicero having said these things, sat down, Cicero, his dictis, consedit, literally, Cicero, these things being said, sat down; in which, as the pronoun is neither governed by any word, nor the nominative to any verb, and as the proper English of dictus is being said, both the pronoun and participle are put in the ablative absolute. But, when the English is having and the verb deponent, no such change is necessary, since the two participles precisely correspond to each other; thus, Cicero hac locutus consedit, Cicero having said these things sat down, the proper signification of locutus being having said. It is observed, that the participles of Common verbs may either agree in case with the substantive before them, like the participles of deponent verbs, or may be put in the ablative absolute, like the participles of passive verbs: as, Romani adepti libertatem floruerunt: or Romani, libertate adepta, floruerunt. But, as the participles of Common

verbs are seldom used in a passive signification, they are very rarely found in the ablative absolute.

Note 6. It often happens, that, when in English two distinct events are expressed by two finite verbs connected by and, the conjunction is omitted in Latin, and the noun and verb preceding it are put in the ablative absolute: as, "He made the signal, and attacked the enemy," Signo dato, hostes invasit. Sometimes the prior or contemporary event, which is usually expressed in the ablative absolute, is made the object of the action of the following verb, when the cases following both verbs denote an identity in regard to the object: as, "He conquered the enemy and," or, "Having conquered the enemy, he compelled them to surrender," may be expressed by, Hostes victos in deditionem redegit, or, passively, Hostes victi in deditionem redacti sunt. Thus also Ovid, Et (boves) occultat abactas.

Note 7. This ablative may be resolved into a nominative with cum, dum, quando, postquam, si, quoniam, &c. and a verb of the indicative or subjunctive mood: as, Augusto imperante, or dum Augustus imperabat. Lectis literis, or postquam literæ sunt lectæ. Me duce, or si ego dux ero.

Note 8. This ablative, although named absolute, is not only dependent, in sense, upon a verb, but is, in reality, governed by some preposition understood, such as sub, cum, a, ab, in, which are sometimes expressed: as, Sub te (existente) magistro—Virg. Cum diis benè juvantibus arma capite—Liv. who elsewhere says, Ut diis benè juvantibus bellum incipiamus, omitting the preposition. Moremque sinistrum sacrorum Druidæ positis repetistis ab armis—Lucan. In quo facto domum revocatus, capitis accusatus, absolvitur—Nep. Sole sub ardenti—Virg. In the last example, it seems doubtful to me, whether ardenti is to be considered as an adjective, or a participle, since it is to be observed, that the termination in e is almost universally used, when the ablative is absolute.

Note 9. It was observed, in Note 1, that this ablative is used, when two parts of a sentence respect different persons or things: this is generally true, but there are not wanting instances, in which the same person, being spoken of in a diversity of time or condition, is the ablative to the participle, and the nominative to the verb: as, Me duce ad hunc voti finem, me milite, veni—Ovid. Nobis vigilantibus, et multum in posterum providentibus, populo Romano consentiente, erimus profectò liberi brevi tempore—Cic. But, generally, in such instances, the nominative is used: as, Iens in Pompejanum benè mane hæc scripsi—Cic. Interrogati incolæ non paliuntur errare—Senec. rather than me eunte, interrogatis incolis.

OF THE CONSTRUCTION OF WORDS INDECLINABLE.

OF ADVERBS.

Rule LXVI. Adverbs are joined to verbs, participles, nouns, and other adverbs: as,

Benè scribit,
Fortiter pugnans,
Servus egregiè fidelis,
Satis benè,

He writes well.
Fighting bravely.
A servant remarkably faithful.
Well enough.

Note 1. Thus also; Bonis quod benè fit, haud perit—Plaut. Malè parta, malè dilabuntur—Cic. Vir apprimè nobilis—Ter. Homerus planè orator—Cic. Admodum puella—Liv. Adverbs are seldom joined to substantives; and in the last example, the substantive seems to be used as an adjective. Tu verò Platonem nec nimis valdè unquam, nec nimis sæpè laudaveris—Cic. They are also found with pronouns, and prepositions: as, Planè noster, Longè ultra terminum, &c.

Note 2. It is observed, that the intensive words apprime, admodum, vehementer, perquam, valde, &c. are generally joined to positives; likewise per, in composition; such phrases also as in primis, cum primis, ante alios, &c.; and quam subjoined to other intensives: as, Gratum admodum feceris—Cic. Praterquam pauci—Cic. But some of these are sometimes found with the superlative.

Note 3. Tam and quam generally connect positives, seldom superlatives, and seldomer comparatives: as, Nemo orator tâm multa scripsit, quâm multa sunt nostra—Cic. Quâm quisque pessimè fecit, tâm maximè tutus est—Sall. Non tam in bellis et in præliis, quâm in promissis firmiorem—Cic. When it denotes wonder, pity, or interrogation mixed with wonder, quam is generally joined with positives; when used for quantum, how much, it is joined to positives: as, Quâm sint morosi qui amant, vel ex hoc intelligi potest—Cic.; but when used for quantum, the verb possum following, it is generally joined to superlatives: as, Quâm maximis ilineribus potest, in Galliam contendit—Cæs.; used for valdè, it is elegantly joined to superlatives: as, Utatur verbis quâm usitatissimis—Cic. Perhaps, here, possum may be implied.

Note 4. Parum, multum, nimium, tantum, quantum, aliquantum, are generally joined to positives, sometimes also to comparatives: as, Socer hujus vir multum bonus est—Cic. Forma viri aliquantum amplior humanā—Liv.

Note 5. Paulo, nimio, aliquanto, eo, quo, hoc, impendio, nihilo, are generally joined to comparatives: as, Eò gravior est dolor,

quò culpa major—Cic. Tanto, quanto, multo, to comparatives or superlatives: as, Omne animi vitium tanto conspectius in se Crimen habet, quanto mojor qui peccat habetur—Juven. Tanto pessimus omnium poeta, quanto tu optimus omnium patronus—Catull. Multo potentius—Senec. Multo jucundissimus—Cic.

Note 6. Longè is generally joined to superlatives, sometimes to comparatives, but seldom to positives: as, Suevorum gens est longè maxima et bellicosissima Germanorum—Cæs.; with adjectives of diversity also: as, Longè mihi alia mens est—Sall.—Pedibus longè melior Lycus—Virg. Longè opulentus—Apul.

Note 7. Facilè, used for haud dubiè, is joined to superlatives, or to words of similar import: as, Vir unus totius Gracia facilè doctissimus—Cic. Homo regionis illius virtute facilè princeps—Cic.

The nature of two negatives in the same clause, or in different clauses, has been noticed in Etymology; and the government of adverbs, in regard to moods, will be noticed under that of Conjunctions.

Rule LXVI*. Some Adverbs of Time, Place, and Quantity, govern the genitive: as,

Pridie illius dici, The day before that day.

Ubique gentium, Every where.

Satis est verborum, There is enough of words.

Note 1. The Adverbs of Time are Interea, postea, inde, tunc: as, Te interea loci cognovi—Ter. Postea loci—Sall. Inde loci—Lucr. Tunc temporis—Justin.

Note 2. The Adverbs of Place are Ubi and quo, with their compounds, ubique, ubicunque, ubiubi, ubinam, ubivis, aliubi, alicubi, quocunque, quovis, aliquo, quoquo; also eò, alibi, huc, huccine, unde, usquam, nusquam, longè, ibidem, &c.: as, Ubi terrarum sumus—Cic. Quò hinc nunc gentium aufugiam—Plaut. Eò audaciæ provectus est—Tac. Tu autem abes longè gentium—Cic. &c.

Note 3. The Adverbs of Quantity are Abunde, affatim, largiter, nimis, quoad, sat, satis, parum, minime: as, Se jampridem potentiæ gloriæque abunde adeptum—Suet. Divitiarum affatim—Plaut. Auri et argenti largiter—Plaut. Nimis insidiarum—Cic. Quoad ejus facere potueris—Cic. 1 Sat rationis—Virg. Satis eloquentiæ,

¹ Dr. Crombie, however, has clearly shown, that quoad is uniformly an adverb, incapable of government, and that when it appears with an accusative, it is a corruption of quod ad, when with a genitive, a corruption for quod.—In the following example from Livy, Quod stipendium serius quoad diem præstaret, Cellarius reads quam ad diem, and Gesner observes, "Et monuit olim Vorstium Gronovius, meliùs legi quam ad diem; licet vulgatam librorum lectionem et ipse, et nunc Drakenborchius, servaverint." Noltenius also calls quoad with an accusative pravum particulæ usum. Tursellinus says 'Quoad loc, quoad illud, Latinè dici non videtur; sed quod ad hoc spectat, quod ad ulad pertinet." Perizonjus observes, that in the passages in which quoad ejas ou

supientiæ parum—Sall. Minimè gentium—Ter. Several of these seem to have the force of substantives.

Note 4. Ergô, denoting for the sake, instar, and partim, usually enumerated among adverbs, are real substantives, and, as such, govern the genitive.

Note 5. Pridie and postridie take the genitive or accusative; as, Pridie ejus diei—Cic. Postridie ejus diei—Cæs. Pridie Quinquatrus—Cic. Postridie ludos—Cic. Thus also, Pridie and postridie, kalendas, nonas, idus; rather than kalendarum, &c.

Note 6. In regard to such constructions, it may be observed that Interea loci may be Inter ea negotia loci; Eò, quò, and the like, are supposed to be the old datives eoi, quoi, with loco or negotio understood; or they may be accusatives plural; others, as abunde, ubi, longè, have the force of nouns. Pridie ejus diei may be die priore ante tempus ejus diei; and when pridie and postridie are followed by an accusative, ante or post is understood.

Note 7. En and ecce take the nominative or accusative: as, En causa, cur dominum servus accusat—Cic. En Paridis hostem—Senec. Ecce nova turba—Cic. Ecce rem—Plaut. Hem, used for ecce, is construed with an accusative: as, Hem astutias—Ter. It is observed, that when these words are used, merely for the purpose of showing, they are commonly followed by a nominative; but that when they express scorn, contempt, reproof, or blame, they are commonly construed with the accusative.

The nominative is supposed to be dependent on such words as *adest*, or *existit*, understood; and the accusative is thought to be governed by some part of *video*, or the like, understood.

RULE LXVII. Some derivative Adverbs govern the case of their primitives: as,

Omnium elegantissime of all.

Vivere convenienter naturæ,

| To live agreeably to nature.

Note 1. Thus also, Omnium optimè—Cic. by Rule XV. Thus too, Sæpissimè omnium, diutissimè omnium, although the superlatives, whence the adverbs come, are not used.——Congruenter naturæ convenienterque vivere—Cic. Huic obviam civitas processerat—Cic. Rule XVI.——Altè pedem—Colum. Altè tribus pedibus—Pallad. Rule XVIII.——Quàm proximè potest hostium castris castra communit—Cæs. Qui proxime Rhenum incolunt—Cæs.

curs, the latter word is under the government of aliquid understood; a conjecture supported neither by example nor analogy. On the contrary, Dr. Crombie contends for the substitution of quod cjus, as being a reading which is consistent with the sense and the rules of analogy, and in several instances approved by editors of the greatest erudition.

The accusative is the more common case, and it is governed by ad understood, in which way propior and proximus are sometimes construed: the dative belongs to Rule XVI. Ampliùs opinione morabatur—Sall. Priùs tuâ opinione hic adero—Plaut. Rule XIX. Thus also, Diutiùs expectatione, although diutior does not exist. Vossius adds Clanculum patres—Ter. considering clanculum as a derivative from clam, which, being itself rather an adverb than a preposition, admits an accusative or an ablative after it, through certain prepositions understood. Such elliptical expressions as Plus duo millia, Minus quadringenti, Plus quingentos colaphos, Amplius sexcenti, Amplius octingentos equos, sometimes referred to this Rule, have been noticed under Rule XIX; and Vossius observes, in regard to them, that it is doubtful whether the comparatives be adverbs or nouns.

Note 2. To complete some of the preceding constructions, the adverbs require the same ellipses to be supplied after them, as their adjectives.

OF PREPOSITIONS.

RULE LXVIII. The prepositions ad, apud, ante, &c. govern the accusative: as,

Ad patrem,

To the father.

Rule LXIX. The prepositions a, ab, abs, &c. govern the ablative: as,

A patre.

From the father.

RULE LXX. The prepositions in, sub, super, and subter, govern the accusative, when motion to a place is signified: as,

Eo in scholam,
Sub mænia tendit—Virg.
Incidit super agmina—Virg.
Ducit subter fastigia tecti
—Virg.

I go into the school.
He goes under the walls.
It fell upon the troops.
He brings him under the roof of the house.

It is observed, that in denoting motion to a place is expressed, in English, by to or into; and in denoting motion or rest in a place, by the English in; and this is generally true. But, in the phrase In bonam partem acciperedic, in which there certainly is motion to, the English idiom requires in—"To take in good part." We also say "They hid themselves in the woods," meaning they retired into the woods for concealment, Sees in sylvas abdilierunt—Cæs. Sees in sylvas abdilierunt would imply that they were in the woods previously to their concealment. Thus also "To give in marriage," Dare in matrimonium—Cic.; "To speak in (to the) praise," Divero in laudem—Aul. Gell.; "In future," In futurum; "In a wonderful manner," Mirum in modum, converse sunt omnium mentes—Cæs.; In Junouis honorem—Hor. In honour, or to the honour."

Rule LXXI. But if motion or rest in a place be signified, in and sub govern the ablative, super and subter either the accusative or ablative: as,

Scdeo, vel discurro, in scholâ,

Recubo, vel ambulo, sub I lie, or walk, under the shaumbrâ,

Sedens super arma—Virg. Sitting above the arms. Fronde super viridi—Virg. Upon the green grass.

Venæ subter cutem dispersæ—Plin.
Subter littore—Catull.

Virg. Upon the green grass.

The veins dispersed under the skin.

Beneath the shore.

Note 1. Such instances as Esse in potestatem—Cic. for in potestate, are rare².—For such, and other remarks on prepositions, the learner is referred to Prepositions, in Etymology, to which it seems unnecessary to make any additional remarks.

RULE LXXII. A preposition often governs the same case in composition, that it does out of it: as,

Adeamus scholam, Let us go to school. Let us go out of school.

- Note 1. Thus also, Cæsar omnem equitatum pontem transducit—Cæs. Hic ut navi egressus est—Nep. Supersedeas hoc labore itineris—Cic.
- Note 2. The preposition is often repeated: as, Quòd talem virum è civitate expulissent—Nep. Nunquam accedo ad te, quin abs te abeam doctior—Ter.
- Note 3. Some verbs never have the preposition repeated after them: as, Affaris, alloquor, allatro, alluo, accolo, circumvenio, circumeo, circumsto, circumsedeo, circumvolo, obeo, prætereo, abdico, effero, everto, &c. The compounds of trans sometimes repeat the preposition. Some of the compounds with inter, as Intercino, intererro, interfluo, interfluo, interfluo, intermeo, interstrepo, and

In castra venisset—Cæs. B. G. lib. ii. 17, is in certain MSS. in castris; and In conspectum agminis nostri venissent—Cæs. B. G. lib. iv. 9, is in certain MSS. in conspectu. Those who wish to see the latter phraseology explained and defended, are referred to Clarke's Cæsar, Bell. Gall. lib. iv. 9; or page 76. I have perused the note attentively, but do not feel myself perfectly convinced by the arguments there adduced. Venire in castris—Cæs. may mean, as Clarke says, Venire et considere (two verbs very different in their sense) in castris; and Venit in senatu Cic. may denote Venit et consedit in senatu; yet, although the action of coming may be followed by sitting down, it seems a strange supposition, that the latter is implied in, or expressed by, the former. Esse in potestatem, attributed to Cicero, may, perhaps, upon the same principle, be explained to mean "To be [come] in [to] the power." Such readings are, perhaps, spurio us. If not, the constructions may be regarded as anomalies; or, venio may, probably, denote, in such examples, the result of the action of coming, as expressed by the English verb arrive. See Note, p. 128.

almost all verbs compounded with præter, commonly omit the preposition. Interjaceo, interjicio, intercedo, interpono, repeat it, or omit it: or, otherwise, like intermico, intervenio, take the dative. The compounds of in, ob, and sub generally take the dative; those of super, generally the accusative.

- Note 4. There are other verbs which appear to be always construed with a preposition; as Accurro, adhortor, incido, avoco, averto, &c. Attineo is generally thus construed.
- Note 5. Some either admit or reject it, as Abstinco, decedo, expello, aggredior, perrumpo, ingredior, induco, aberro, evado, ejicio, exeo, extermino, extrudo, exturbo; also adeo, accedo, incumbo, insulto, increpo, incurso, pervado, illudo, peragro, abalienor, abhorreo, avello, &c: thus, Ingredi orationem, or in orationem—Cic. Exire ære alieno—Cic. è finibus suis—Cæs. Pervadere urbem—Liv. per agros—Cic. Avellere templo palladium—Virg. aliquem a se—Ter. &c. Many of these admit after them other prepositions of similar import to those in composition: as Dehortor, deficio, descisco, &c. ab aliquo; Abire, demigrare loco, or a, de, ex, loco; Exire a patria—Cic. Excidere manibus, de manibus, &c.
- Note 6. Many are construed with the dative, or otherwise: as, Assurgere alicui; Accedere urbem, ad urbem, urbi; Inesse rei alicui, and in re aliquâ; Abalienare aliquid alicujus for ab aliquo—Cic. &c.
- Note 7. Some verbs compounded with e or ex, are followed by an accusative, or ablative: as, Exire limen—Ter. septis—Virg. Egredi veritatem—Plin. portubus—Ovid. Some words compounded with præ, take an accusative: as, Tibur aquæ præfluunt—Hor. Asiamque potentem prævehitur—Lucan. Thus also Præsidere Italiam, præminere cæteros, præstare omnes, &c. In some of these examples the accusative may be supposed governed by præter or extra understood, and sometimes expressed, as Extra fines et terminos egredi—Cic.
- Note 8. This rule takes place chiefly when the preposition may be separated from the verb: as, Alloquor te—Virg. i. e. loquor ad te. Classis circumvehitur arcem—Liv. i. e. vehitur circum arcem. Exercitum Ligerim transducit—Cæs. i. e. ducit exercitum trans Ligerim. But, in regard to active verbs compounded with prepositions governing the accusative, it generally happens, that the preposition is repeated, as in Cæsar se ad neminem adjunxit—Cic.; or a dative is used, as in Hic dies me valde Crasso adjunxit—Cic.
- Note 9. It may be here added, that an ellipsis of prepositions is frequent: as, Devenere locos—Virg. i. e. ad. Nunc id prodeo—Ter. i. e. ob or propter. Maria aspera juro—Virg. i. e. per. Ut se loco movere non possent—Cic. i. e. e or de. Quid illo facias?—Ter. i. e. de. Ut patria pelleretur—Nep. i. e. cx. Sometimes the word to which the preposition refers, is omitted: as, Circum concordiae—Sall. i. e. adem. And this occurs most frequently

after prepositions in composition: as, Emittere servum—Plaut. i. e. manu. Evomere virus—Cic. i. e. ore. Educere copias—Cæs. i. e. castris. When prepositions are joined with cases which they do not govern, there is always an ellipsis supposed: as, Campum Stellatem divisit extra sortem ad viginti millibus civium—Suet. i. e. civium millibus ad viginti millia. To which may be added such expressions as Anno ante, Longo post tempore, in which the ablatives are those of time, some word being understood as the regimen of the prepositions. See R. LXIV, Note 3.

OF INTERJECTIONS.

RULE LXXIII. The interjections O, heu, and proh, govern the vocative, and sometimes the accusative: as,

O formose puer! O fair boy!
Heu me miserum! Ah wretch that I am!

Note 1. These interjections are found with the nominative or vocative, and sometimes with the accusative; as, O vir fortis, atque amicus—Ter. Heu vanitas humana!—Plin. Proh dolor!—Liv. O Dave, itane contemnor abs te—Ter. Heu miserande puer!—Virg. Proh sancte Jupiter!—Cic. O præclarum custodem!—Cic. Heu me infelicem!—Ter. Proh deûm hominumque fidem!—Cic. It is observed that when O is used as a particle of exclamation, it takes either the nominative, accusative, or vocative; that when any vehement affection is denoted, it is generally followed by an accusative; and that when the affection is gentle, it is generally omitted. When used in addressing a person, it is always followed by the vocative: in this sense it is generally understood.

Note 2. Eheu is construed in a similar way to the others: as, Eheu Palæstra atque Ampelisca! ubi estis nunc—Plaut. Eheu me miserum!—Ter. Eheu conditionem hujus temporis—Cic.

Note 3. Sometimes there is an ellipsis of the case usually following these particles: thus, O miseræ sortis—Lucan. i. e. homines. Proh deûm immortalium—Ter. i. e. fidem.

¹ Sometimes, by a Hellenism, the nominative is used instead of the vocative; as Projice tela manu, meus sanguis—Virg. It may here be observed, that, in the decline of the Latin language, meus was sometimes joined to the vocative of a noun; as domine neus, a phraseology adopted by Sidonius, Salvianus, and others. Mi (the usual vocative, formed by apocope from the antient mie of mius) was also used in the other two genders; as mi parens, mi conjux—Apul. for mea mater, mea uxor; mi sidus—Apul. for meum. Testor, mi Paulla—Hieron. Scaliger would read Vive diu, mi dulcis anus—Tibull. 1, 7, 69; but it has been shown by others, that such expressions did not prevail in the Augustan age, and mihi has been restored from more correct MSS. and editions. Mi, however, is sometimes used for mihi. Mi was said to be employed, even as the vocative plural; as Mi homines, mî spectatores—Plaut. O mê hospites—Petron. But here mî scems to be a contraction of mci, or of the antient mii, like sis used for suis, sus for suos, by the more antient writers.

Note 4. Such constructions are deemed elliptical, as interjections do not seem to govern any case. The vocative may be said to be placed absolutely, or to be governed by no word. O vir fortis may be O quam es vir fortis. Heu me infelicem may be Heu quam me infelicem sentio. In Proh deûm hominumque fidem, there may be an ellipsis of imploro or obtestor: and so, of the rest.

RULE LXXIV. Hei and Væ govern the dative: as,

Hei mihi! Ah me! Woe to you!

Note 1. Thus also, Hei mihi! qualis erat—Virg. Væ tili, causidice—Mart. Thus used, they seem to have the import of nouns, the expressions being equivalent to Malum est mihi, Omnia funesta sint tili.

Note 2. Heus and Ohe, to which may be added, Au, Eho, Ehodum, Ehem, Heia and Io, are followed by the vocative only: as, Heus Syre—Ter. Ohe libelle—Mart. Au mi homo!—Ter. Ehodum, bone vir, quid ais?—Ter. But in these examples, either O is understood, or, rather, the vocative is put absolutely.

Note 3. Ah and Vah are followed by the accusative, or vocative: as, Ah me miserum!—Ter. in which sentio or experior seems to be understood. Ah virgo infelix!—Virg. Vah inconstantiam!—Incert. Vah salus mea!—Plaut.

Note 4. Hem is followed by the dative, accusative, or vocative: as, Hem tibi—Ter. Hem astutias—Ter. in which vide, or videte, seems understood. Hem mea lux!—Cic.

Note 5. Hui is found with an accusative: as, Hui tam graves rastros, quæso—Ter. supply tractas.

Note 6. Apage and cedo are sometimes added: as, Apage te, cedo puerum—Ter. but these are verbs.

Note 7. It may be generally observed, that the nominative is the subject of some verb understood; that the dative is the dative of acquisition; the accusative is governed by some verb understood; and the vocative is used absolutely.

Note 8. Most of the other interjections, and frequently also those mentioned, are thrown into discourse without any case subjoined to them: as, Eheu! fugaces labuntur anni—Hor. Ah! tantam rem tam negligenter agere—Ter.

OF CONJUNCTIONS.

Rule LXXV. The conjunctions et, ac, atque, aut, vel, and some others, couple like cases and moods: as,

Honora patrem et matrem, Honour your father and mother.

Nec scribit, nec legit, He neither writes nor reads.

Note 1. It is the opinion of many writers on Latin and on English grammar, that conjunctions unite only sentences or affirmations, and not single words or cases. Of this opinion are Scaliger, Sanctius, Vossius, Ursinus, and the author of the New Method. On the other hand, Perizonius and Ruddiman contend that they sometimes unite single words. Among the moderns too, Mr. Harris, the learned author of Hermes, asserts that the chief difference between prepositions and conjunctions is, that the former couple words, and the latter, sentences. The respectable author of a useful Latin grammar observes, that "it would perhaps be more rational to say that conjunctions join sentences. They always suppose an ellipsis. Thus in the example, Pulvis et umbra sumus-Hor. the full sentence will be Sumus pulvis et sumus umbra; and in Aut prodesse volunt, aut delectare poeta-Hor. it will be, Aut prodesse volunt poeta, aut delectare volunt poeta. This solution will appear more natural, if we examine the sentences in which the construction is varied, and for which grammarians have been obliged to clog their general rule with exceptions. Thus, Mea et reipublicæ interest-Cic. Meo præsidio atque hospitis-Ter. Aut ob avaritiam, aut misera ambitione, laborat-Hor. Decius, cum se devoveret, et equo admisso, in mediam aciem irruchat -Cic." In these remarks I coincide generally, but differ from him in a part of his inference. These instances certainly may prove that conjunctions join sentences, which was not denied; but they do not disprove the opinion, that they sometimes join cases likewise. In regard to those complex sentences, which, according to the sense, it is possible to resolve into simple assertions, the opinion may be just; but, if we say "two and two make four," and analyse the proposition into "two make four," and "two make four," we shall find the resolution incorrect, and that, here, not two affirmations are implied, but that two words or cases are coupled together in one affirmation; for the predicate is applicable, only when the two subjects are taken in conjunction. In like manner, were we to say Pater et Filius sunt duo, we cannot resolve the proposition into Pater est duo, et Filius est duo, for this is palpably untrue; nor into Pater est unus, et Filius est unus, for this is only saying, that, "one is one," and "one is one," which are different propositions from "one and one constitute two." Again; if we say, Emi equum centum aureis et pluris (æris pretio), we cannot resolve the sentence into Emi equum centum aureis, et emi equum pluris, since the clause centum aureis et pluris constitutes the one price of but one horse bought at once. Still, it may be true, that, in Amo patrem et matrem, et couples amo and amo, rather than patrem and matrem. From what has

Again, when we read Septingentesimo ac nono anno bella civilia reparata sunt; we do not understand, that the wars were renewed (twice); i. e. once in the 700th year; and, again, that they were renewed in the 9th year; but that they were renewed in the 709th year, septingentesimo and nono being the words coupled, and not reparata sunt (understood), and reparata sunt (expressed), or two sentences. Nor do I conceive that two anno s are coupled, one being to

been said, we may infer, that not sentences, but single words, are coupled, when, according to the obvious meaning, the predicate is not applicable to each subject individually, but to both conjunctly.

- Note 2. Not only the copulative conjunctions, et, ac, atque, nec, neque, &c. and the disjunctive, aut, ve, vel, seu, sive, belong to this rule, but also, quam, nisi, præterquam, an, nempe, licet, quamvis, nedum, sed, verùm, &c., and the adverbs of likeness, ceu, tanquam, quasi, ut, &c., are referred to it: as, Nec census, nec clarum nomen avorum, Sed probitas magnos ingeniumque facit—Ovid. Philosophi negant quenquam virum bonum esse, nisi sapientem—Cic. Amandus pater, licet difficilis—Cic. Gloria virtutem tanquam umbra sequitur—Cic.
- Note 3. If the words require a different construction, this rule does not take place, in regard to the cases: as, Mea et reipublicæ interest—Cic. Sive Romæ es, sive in Epiro—Cic. But generally, this seeming variation from the rule, arises from an ellipsis: thus, Interest inter mea negotia, et negotia reipublicæ;—Sive in urbe Romæ es, sive in Epiro.
- Note 4. If the sentence admits a change in the construction, the cases or moods may be different: thus, Lentulum eximiâ spe, summæ virtutis adolescentem fac erudias—Cic. Neque per vim, neque insidiis—Sall. Decius, cum se devoveret, et equo admisso, in mediam aciem irruebat—Cic. for irrueret. Sentences of different constructions may be joined together: as, Omnibus honoribus et præsens est cultus, et proficiscentem prosecuti sunt, sc. Romani—Liv.
- Note 5. When et, aut, vel, sive, or nec, are joined to different members of the same sentence, without expressly connecting it in a particular manner with any former sentence, the first et is expressed in English by both or likewise; aut or vel, by either; the first sive, by whether; and the first nec, by neither: as, Et legit, et scribit, He both reads and writes: thus also, Tum legit, tum scribit, or Cum legit, tum scribit. Aut legit, aut scribit, He either reads, or writes: and thus, respectively, of the others.
- Note 6. A conjunction is sometimes joined to the word which stands first in the connexion, for the sake of emphasis: as, Montesque feri, sylvæque loquuntur—Virg.
- Note 7. The reason of this construction is, that the words coupled often depend upon the same word, which is generally expressed to one of them; and is, in most instances, to be understood to the other.

be considered as understood to *septingentesimo*, for this supposition might alter the meaning; but that the two numeral adjectives *conjunctly* agree with one and the same *anno*. Were it necessary, it would be an easy matter to accumulate similar instances.

RULE LXXVI. Ut, quo, licet, ne, utinam and dummodo, are for the most part joined with the subjunctive mood: as, Accidit ut terga verterent, It happened that they turned their backs.

- Note 1. An, ne, num, utrùm, anne, annon, and all other interrogative particles; the pronouns quis and cujas; the adverbs quomodo, ut, quam, ubi, quò, unde, quà, quorsum, and the like; and the adjectives quantus, qualis, quotus, quotuplex, utcr, are generally followed by the subjunctive, if the sense be dubitative or contingent (that is, they have in reality no government of moods; since, if the sense be indicative, the indicative mood is requisite): as, Quæ virtus, et quanta, boni, sit vivere parvo, Discite—Hor. Nescit vitâne fruatur, An sit apud manes—Ovid. Ut sciam quid agas, ubi quoque, et maximè quando Romæ futurus sis—Cic. But many of these are found joined with the indicative, even when they are used indefinitely. After the subjunctive in the principal member of a sentence, the verb following these is subjunctive: as, Tum verò cerneres quanta audacia, quantaque animi vis fuisset in exercitu Catilinæ—Sall.
- Note 2. The following words may have in general an indicative or a subjunctive mood after them.

(1) Antequam: as, Antequam proxime discessi-Cic. Ante-

quam de republica dicam-Cic.

(2) Postquam: as, Nunc postquam vides—Ter. Sed sive antequam ver prævenerit, sive postquam hyemârit—Plin. But both postquam and posteaquam are oftener found with the indicative.

(3) Priusquam¹: as, Priusquam de republicâ dicere incipio—

Cic. Priusquam incipias, Consulto opus est-Sall.

(4) Pridiequam and Postridiequam: as, Mummius, qui, pridiequam ego Athenas venirem, Mitylenas profectus erat—Cic. Postridie, aut post diem tertium, quàm lecta erit—Cato. It is to be observed, that, when the leading verb is of a contingent signification, the verb following these is generally subjunctive: as, Ut ne quis coronà donaretur, priusquam rationes retulisset—Cic.

Note 3. The following words may have an indicative or a subjunctive mood indifferently, when the signification is indicative.

(1) Cum or quum, quando, quandoquidem, when they denote since: as, Nunc cum non queo, æquo animo fero—Ter. Cum tot

¹ Ante, post, and priùs are often found, as will hereafter be noticed under the Position or Arrangement of Words, separated from quàm, the former three being placed in one member of a sentence, and the latter, in another. Sometimes also antequam and postguam are separated in such a way that ante and post govern their own case: thus, Anto paucos quàm occideretur menses—Suet. Quartum post annum quam ex Peloponneso in Siciliam redierat—Nep. Quàm alone is sometimes used for postquam: as, Alterà die quam a Brundisio solvit—Liv. When pridiè precedes, quam is used for ante or priusquam: as, Pridiè quam excessit è vita—Cic. Pridiè quam hæc scripsi—Cic.

sustineas negotia—Hor. Quando aliter diis visum est—Liv. Nec fluminibus aggesta [terra] laudabilis; quando senescant sata quædam aqua—Plin. Quandoquidem apud te nec auctoritas valet—Liv. Quandoquidem agros jam ante istius injuriis exagitati reliquissent—Cic. In this last, however, the sense seems contingent.

(2) Cum or quum'; quando; quandocunque or quandoque; ubi; ubicunque; quoties; quotiesque; simul; simul ac, ut, atque, adverbs of time: as, Quæ cum accidunt, nemo est, &c.—Cic. Cum faciem videas, videtur esse quantivis pretii—Ter. Quando erit, ut condas instar Carthaginis urbem—Ovid. Indeed, quando and quandoquidem generally take the indicative, as well as quandocunque; Quandocunque ista gens suas literas dabit, omnia corrumpet—Plin. Huc ubi (when) perventum est—Nep. Ubi semel quis

¹ Rhenius, and, after him, Schmidius and Ursinus, thus speak of the adverbial particle cum: (1) When it denotes in German, wenn (Angl. when), and refers to time absolutely, it is followed either by the present or the future of the indicative, or by the future subjunctive [perfect]: as, Cum audio ad te ire aliquen, literas ad te dare soleo—Cic. Cum inimici nostri venire dicentur, tum in Epirum ibo—Cic. Vereor ne execundi potestas non sit, cum Cæsar venerit —Cic. (2) When it answers to the German als or da (Angl. as, whilst, when,) it is followed by the imperfect and pluperfect subjunctive: as, Cum scriberem; Cum scripsissem. (3) But when any time has been previously expressed, it takes any tense of the indicative: as, Multi anni sunt, cum ille in are meo est—Cic. Nunquam obliviscar noctis illius, cum tibi vigilanti pollicebar—Cic. Biennium est, cum virtuti nuncium remisisti—Cic. But these remarks, as Ursinus

himself allows, do not always hold good.

Dr. Crombie observes that the two last rules are correct, but that the first is not sufficiently comprehensive; for cum, taken absolutely, admits also the imperfect indicative, as Cum aliquid videbatur caveri posse, tum id negligentiam And likewise the preterite; as Cum patriam amisi, tum me dolebam-Cic. periisse putato-Ovid. He observes also, that these rules, taken as a whole, are defective, cum being often joined to the indicative mood, when the sense is not absolute, and when no time is mentioned, either specially or generally. Noltenius more comprehensively gives the following rules: Cum, for quando, quo tempore, quoties, takes the present, the preterite, and the future indicative; for postquam, and ex quo, the present and preterite of the same mood, or the imperfect and pluperfect subjunctive, rarely the same tenses indicative; and when any time is noted, either specially or generally, it takes the indicative. The same learned critic observes, (Gymnasium, 2d Ed. vol. i. p. 66) that it would seem, that the rule by which the practice of classic writers was generally regulated, in regard to the adverb cum, was to join it to the indicative mood, when they intended emphatically to mark the time of one action, present, past, or future, as coincident with that of another action, or with any time, specially or generally. If no particular stress was laid on the times as coincident, and if the actions themselves, not their co-existence, or their continuity, formed the primary consideration, cum was joined to the subjunctive. He gives it as a general rule, for the direction of the junior reader, to join cum with the subjunctive, when it can be turned into after or while, without any material injury to the force or meaning of the expression; or when the clause with which cum is connected, can be rendered participially, either in Latin or in English; thus, "When he had drawn up his army, he waited for battle," Cum exercitum instructisset, prælium expectabat, or exercitu instructo, having drawn up his army. "When he had arrived sooner than was expected," or having arrived, Cum de improviso venisset-Cas. B. G. ii. 3. Here the clause connected with cum cannot be participially rendered in Latin, the verb venio being intransitive, and the Latins having no perfect participle active.

pejeraverit, ei credi postea non oportet—Cic. But here, perhaps, the sense may be considered contingent. Ille ubi nascentem ma. culis variaverit orbem-Virg. Evenit ut, quoticscunque dictator recepit, hostes moverentur-Liv. Plebs scivit, sacerdotes, quotiescunque pro Pop. Athen. precarentur, toties execrari Philippum-Liv. Quoties and quotiescunque are most commonly found with the indicative. Simul inflavit tibicen, a perito carmen cognoscitur—Cic. Simul portarum claves tradiderimus, Carthaginiensium extemplò Enna erit-Liv. Quam simul ac tali persensit peste teneri-Virg. Ut, simul ac posita sit causa, habeant quò se referant-Cic. Omne animal, simul ut ortum est, et se ipsum diligit, &c .- Cic. Facile ut appareat, nostros omnia potuisse consegui simul ut velle capissent— Cic. Simul atque introductus est, rem confecit--Cic. Scævola quotidie, simul atque luceret, faciebat omnibus sui conveniendi potestatem—Cic. When the signification is contingent, the subjunctive ought to be used: as, Quandoque ossa Capyis detecta essent, fore ut, &c.—Suet. It should be observed of cum, that when used as a conjunction, for quoniam, or quandoquidem since, or etsi, although, it generally takes the subjunctive, and for quod because, the indicative; as, Cum Athenas tanguam ad mercaturam bonarum artium sis profectus, inanem redire turpissimum est-Cic. Cum etiam plus contenderimus, quam possumus, minus tamen faciemus, quam debemus—Cic. Cum tu liber es, Messenio, gaudeo—Plaut.

(3) These adverbs of time, dum1, donec, quamdiu, quoad: as, Hæc dum aguntur-Cic. Dum id nobiscum und videatis, ac venit Æditimus-Varr. Donec ad hæc tempora perventum est-Liv. Certum obsidere est usque donec rediérit—Ter. It is observed, that dum and donec, when used for quamdiu, are generally followed by the indicative, and for usquedum, by the indicative or subjunctive; and dum for dummodo, by the subjunctive. Ego tamdiù requiesco, quamdiù ad te scribo-Cic. Reminiscere illam, quamdiù ei opus fuerit, vixisse—Cic. Neque finem insequendi fecerunt, quoad subsidio confisi equites præcipites hostes egerunt-Cæs. Equites, quoad loca patiantur, ducere jubet--Liv. It is observed, that the indicative mood is the more frequent after all these words; but, if the sense be contingent, then the subjunctive must be used: as, Ne expectetis, dum exeant huc—Ter. or, when used for dummodo: as, Oderint, dum metuant-Cic. Ut nemo donec quidquam virium superesset, corpori aut sanguini suo parceret-Liv. Quamdiu se bene gesserint. Mihi hoc dederunt, ut esses in Sicilia, quoad welles—Cic.

(4) Etsi, ctiamsi, quanquam, quamvis, tametsi: as, Etsi vereor, judices &c.—Cic. Etsi enim nihil in se habeat gloria cur expetatur,

tamen virtutem tanquam umbra sequitur—Cic. Quam tibi, etiamsi non desideras, tamen mittam—Cic. Omnia brevia tolerabilia esse de-

¹ It is observed, in regard to dum, that when it refers to a present or progressive action, the subjunctive is seldom used. Yet Cicero writes, Me scito, dum tu absis, scriberc audacius—Fam. xii. 17. Thus also, Dum hac ita tierent—Hirt. B. Afr. c. 25.

bent, etiamsi maxima sint-Cic. Atque ego, quanquam nullum scelus rationem habet, tamen scire velim-Liv. Quanquam Volcatio assentirentur-Cic. Quamvis tardus eras, et te tua plaustra tenebant -- Ovid. Quamvis Elusios miretur Græcia campos-Virg. Quamvis prudens ad cogitandum sis, sicut es-Cic. Although, in this last, the sense appear contingent, and consequently es for sis might be deemed incorrect, yet, in a similar instance, the indicative is used: thus, Ea si maxima est, ut est certe-Cic. 1 Off. 153. jactat ille quidem illud suum arbitrium--Cic. Memini tametsi nullus moncas—Ter. 1 It is observed, that etsi, tametsi, and quanquam, when they stand in the beginning of a sentence, usually have the indicative after them; and that etiamsi and quamvis are oftener joined with the subjunctive. Tamenetsi is construed as tametsi. But, when the verb is contingent in sense, or when the verb in the principal member of the sentence is contingent, the verb which follows the preceding particles must be in the subjunctive mood: as, Etsi ne discessissem e tuo conspectu, nisi me plane nihil ulla res adjuvaret--Cic. Næ ille, etiamsi prima prosperè evenissent, imbellem Asiam quæsisset-Liv. Putaram te aliquid novi, ... quamvis non curarem quid in Hispaniâ fieret, tamen te scripturum-Cic. Gaudeo tibi meas literas prius à tabellario qu'am ab ipso redditas; quanquam te nihil fefellisset-Cic. Non crederem, tametsi vulgò audirem - Cic.

(5) Si, sin, ni, nisi, siquidem: as, Si vales, benè est-Cic. Ut si sæpiùs decertandum sit, ut crit, semper novus veniam-Cic. Si illum relinguo, ejus vitæ timeo; sin opitulor, hujus minas-Ter. Sin autem ad adolescentiam perduxissent amicitiam, dirimi tamen interdum contentione dicebat-Cic. Mirum ni domi est-Ter. Pompeius Domitium, nisi me omnia fallunt, deseret-Cic. Nec Justitiæ nec Amicitiæ omnino esse poterunt, nisi ipsæ per se expetantur-Cic. Ni seems to be a contraction of nisi; indeed, sin and nisi seem to be only si with a negative; it is no wonder, therefore, that their construction is similar. Siquidem is but si quidem. Robur et soboles militum interiit, siquidem, quæ nuntiantur, vera sunt--Cic. These being kindred or similar words, it is unnecessary to multiply examples. It is observed, that si used for quamvis, requires the subjunctive: as, Redeam? non, si me obsecret-Ter. in which, however, the sense is evidently contingent. Si is sometimes omitted, and, then, the verb is generally in the subjunctive: as, Tu quoque magnam partem opere in tanto, sineret dolor, Icare, haberes-Virg. Thus also in the phrase Absque eo esset for Si

¹ I suspect that a few of the examples which are adduced, of the subjunctive mood, do, in reality, involve the potential; thus, Tametsi nullus moncas does not mean "though you do not," but "should not admonish;" Non si me obsecret, not "if she beseeches," but "if she beseech" or "should beseeh me." Indeed, from the sameness of the forms, it is not always easy to distinguish these two moods, more especially, as the indicative and potential phraseologies are, in English, sometimes employed in the same, or nearly the same sense, and the second form of the Latin verb sometimes admits, consistently with the sense, an interpretation, by the one, or the other.

absque eo esset, (Had it not been for him,) the English idiom admitting also the ellipsis of if. When the sense is contingent, it is needless to repeat, that, after all such words the subjunctive is used: as, O morem præclarum, quem a majoribus accepimus, siquidem teneremus--Cic. It is obvious that the member of a sentence, which is preceded by si and the like, is dependent upon another, which may be considered as the principal member. If the verb in the principal member be contingent, then the verb following si, and the like, must be in the subjunctive, and the tenses of the one member must, according to the sense, be accommodated to those of the other: thus, for Present Time, Si foret in terris, rideret Democritus-Hor. Nec si rationem siderum ignoret, poetas intelligat-Quinct. Si ex habitu novæ fortunæ spectetur, venisset in Italiam-Liv. For Past Time; Et habuisset res fortunam, nisi unus homo Syracusis fuisset-Liv. Si meum consilium valuisset, tu hodie egeres-Cic. Dixit hostes fore tardiores, si animadverterent-Nep. Docet eum magno fore periculo, si quid adversi accidisset-Nep. Placebat illud, ut si rex amicis tuis fidem suam præstitisset, auxiliis eum tuis adjuvares-Cic.- For Future Time; Redeam? non, si me obsecret—Ter. Ita geruntur aptè, ut si usus foret, pugnare possint—Cic. Aufugerim potius qu'am redeam, si eo mihi redeundum sciam-Ter. Et facerent, si non ara repulsa sonent-Tibull. In this last, congruity, perhaps, required facerent sonarent, or faciant sonent. The verb in the principal member is sometimes in the indicative, instead of the subjunctive mood, but still the verb following si must be in the subjunctive: as, Si per Metellum licitum esset, matres illorum veniebant-Cic. Si mens non læva fuisset, impulerat ferro Argolicas fædare latebras-Virg. Nec veni, nisi fata locum sedemque dedissent-Virg. In poetry, both verbs may be found in the indicative: as, At fuerat melius, si te puer iste tenebat-Ovid.

(6) Quod, quia, quoniam, quippe (because), seem generally to be joined to the indicative or subjunctive mood indifferently: as, Senatusconsulta duo facta sunt odiosa, quod in Consulem facta putantur—Cic. Mihi quòd defendissem, leviter succensuit—Cic. It is observed that quòd, used for cur or quamobrem, with the verb est, is construed with the subjunctive: as, Est quòd te visam—Plaut. Aliis, quia defit quòd amant, ægrè est—Ter. Vides igitur, quia verba non sint, nihil videri turpe—Cic. Quoniam non potest id finit quod vis, Id velis quod possit—Ter. Latiumque vocari maluit, his quoniam latuisset tutus in oris—Virg. Quippe id est homini naturale—Quinct. Non ignorat voluptatem Epicurus, quippe qui testificetur—Cic.¹ Quippe, when used for nam, it is observed, takes the indicative: as, Quippe vetor fatis—Virg. When quatenus is

It is observed that quippe used for utpote, and, as in this example, followed by qui, generally takes the subjunctive: and when followed by cum, always: as, Quippe, cum ea sine prudentià satis habeat auctoritatis, prudentia sine justitià nihil valeat—Cic. Followed by quòd, it takes the subjunctive; by quia or quonium, the indicative: as, Multa de mea sententia quæstus est Cæsar, quippe quòd

used for quoniam, it is construed as quoniam. If the principal member of a sentence be contingent, the word following these particles must be in the subjunctive: as, Se videre ait, quòd paucis annis magna accessio facta esset, Philosophiam planè absolutam fore—Cic. Neque quisquam est qui dolorem ipsum, quia dolor sit, amet—Cic. Quoniam fractæ vires hostium forent, Domitianum interventurum—Tac. When quod is used in the same connective or relative signification as ut, it may have an indicative or subjunctive mood after it: as, Apparet, quòd aliud a terra sumpsimus, aliud ab honore—Cic. Cato mirari se dicebat, quod non rideret aruspex, aruspicem cum vidisset—Cic.

(7) Quasi, ceu, tanquam, perinde, when they denote likeness, are joined with the indicative, but when they denote pretence or irony, with the subjunctive: as, Fuit olim, quasi ego sum, senex—Plaut. Quasi de verbo, non de re, laboretur—Cic. Adversi rupto ceu quondam turbine venti Conftigunt—Virg. Ceu verò nescian adversus Theophrastum scripsisse etiam fæminam—Plin. Tanquam philosophorum habent disciplinæ ex ipsis vocabula—Ter. Tanquam feceris ipse aliquid—Juven. Hæc omnia perinde sunt, ut aguntur—Cic. Perinde ac eatis facere et fraudata restituere vellent—Cæs.

(8) With respect to the construction of qui with the subjunctive mood, it should be observed, that when the English is expressed contingently or potentially, or when contingency is conveyed, as it frequently is, by the English indicative, the second form of the Latin verb, or potential mood, is required by the sense. And it is only when the English indicative, used in a sense unconditional, requires a Latin subjunctive, that, strictly speaking, this mood can be said to be governed by qui, or indeed by any other word.—1st. When the subject is introduced indirectly with periphrasis, whether affirmatively, negatively, or interrogatively, the verb in the relative clause is usually subjunctive, provided this clause constitutes the predicate. Thus, instead of saying, Nonnulli dicunt, we say, Sunt, qui dicant, there are persons, who say. Fuerunt, qui censerent—Cic. who thought. Inventi autem multi sunt, qui vitam profundere parati essent—Cic. Nemo est, qui haud intelligat-Cic. who does not understand. Nulla pars est corporis, quæ non sit minor-Cic. Quis est enim, cui non perspicua sint illa?-Cic. to whom those things are not clear? An est quisquam, qui dubitet-Liv. These, and similar phraseologies, admit the three following forms; thus we say, They ran through every flame, or There is no flame, through which they did not run, or What flame is there, through which they did not run? Per omnem flammam cucurrerunt. Nulla est flamma, per quam non cucurrerint. Quænam est flamma, per quam non cu-

etiam Crassum ante vidisset—Cic. Quippe quia magnarum sæpe id remedium ægritudinum est—Ter. Insanabilis non est credendus (morbus) quippe quoniam et in multis sponte desiit—Plin. Quid, quia, and quoniam, seem to be redundant in these examples.

currerint; which last is the expression of Cicero. Under this rule may be comprehended those cases in which qui is joined with the subjunctive mood after such words as unus and solus, when they are employed to restrict what is affirmed in the relative clause, exclusively to that particular subject mentioned in the antecedent clause. The relative clause, therefore, is the predicate; thus, Vah! solus hic homo est, qui soiat divinitus-Plaut. This is the only man that knows, equivalent to Hic solus scit. Savientia est una, quæ mæstitiam pellatex animis—Cic. The restrictive term may be merely implied; as, Mens est, qui diros sentiat ictus—Ovid. It is the mind The observance of this rule is, in some cases, (alone) that feels. essential to perspicuity; for, otherwise, the subject may be mistaken for the predicate. If we say Sunt boni, qui dicunt, to express They are good men, who say, and also, There are good men, who say, the expression is evidently ambiguous. This ambiguity is prevented by expressing the former sentiment by Sunt boni, qui dicunt, in which case the relative clause is the subject, and the antecedent clause the predicate; and by expressing the latter sentiment by Sunt boni, qui dicant, where the antecedent clause is the subject, and the relative clause the predicate.—2ndly, The relative is joined to the subjunctive, when the relative clause expresses the reason or cause of the action, state, or event. Thus, Male fecit Hannibal, qui Capuæ hiemarit, or quod Capuæ hiemavit, Hannibal did wrong, in wintering, or, as we sometimes express it, to winter, at Capua, that is, because he wintered. Cæsarem magnam injuriam facere, qui suo adventu vectigalia sibi deteriora faceret. Cæs. In such phraseologies, the relative seems equivalent to quoniam ego, quoniam tu, quoniam ille. This construction of the relative, as in the preceding rule, recommends itself, by its subserviency to perspicuity. If we say Male fecit, qui hiemavit, we impute error to the person who wintered; but do not express the error as consisting in his wintering. When we say qui hiemarit, we signify, that he erred because he wintered.—When the relative possesses a power equivalent to et cum is, et quod is, et quoniam is, et quia is, these adverbs in the antecedent clause being joined with the subjunctive, the relative also, in conformity with this rule, is joined with the subjunctive; thus, Cum autem pulchritudinis duo genera sint, quorum in altero venustas sit, in altero dignitas—Cic. Here the relative clause is equivalent to et cum eorum in altero venustas sit. Under this rule may be comprehended those cases, in which qui is joined with the subjunctive mood, namely, when the relative clause states some circumstance belonging to the antecedent, as accounting for the principal fact, or as contributing to its production; thus, Illi autem, qui omnia de republica præclara, atque egregia sentirent, sine ulla mord, negotium susceperunt—Cic. They, as being persons who entertained the most noble sentiments.-When ut, utpote, quippe, are expressed with the relative, they sufficiently mark the influence of the relative clause; and as all ambiguity is thus prevented,

the relative is sometimes joined with the indicative, but much more frequently, agreeably to the general rule, with the subjunctive: thus, Prima luce ex castris proficiscuntur, ut quibus esset persuasum--Cæs. Egressi Trojani, ut quibus nihil superesset-Liv. as being persons to whom nothing remained. Quippe qui videam Liv. Frater ejus, utpote qui peregre depugnavit—Cic. This is the reading of Ernesti; but most of the early editions give depugnatrit.—3dly. The pronoun qui is joined to the subjunctive mood, when the discourse is oblique or indirect, that is, when the relative clause does not express any sentiment of the author's, but refers it to the person or persons of whom he is speaking. Thus, Dixerunt unum petere, ac deprecari, si forte pro sud clementia ac mansuetudine, quam ipsi ab aliis audirent, statuisset Atuaticos esse conservandos, ne se armis despoliaret-Cæs. Here it is obvious. the relative clause expresses a sentiment delivered by the speakers, and is not to be considered as an observation of the author's, the expression quam audirent being equivalent to quam ipsi audivisse dixerunt; whereas ipsi audiebant would imply an observation of Cæsar's, equivalent to quam ego (scil. Cæsar) eos audiisse dico. The same principle is applicable to ubi used relatively for in quo loco, to quod used as a conjunction, and likewise to cum, quia, quam, quando; thus, Quare ne committeret, ut is locus, ubi constitissent, ex calamitate populi Romani nomen caperet-Cas. Quo also for ad quem locum, and unde for e quo loco, are construed in a similar way. Non minus libenter sese recusaturum populi Romani amicitiam, quam appetierit—Cæs. It may be observed, that, whenever the future perfect would be employed in direct statement, the pluperfect is necessary in the oblique form. We find the direct expression, used by Ovid, Dabitur quodcumque optaris, expressed under an oblique form by Cicero, Sol Phaethonti filio facturum se esse dixit, quidquid optasset.—4thly. When qui is taken for ut ego, ut tu, ut ille, ut nos, &c., it is joined with the subjunctive; thus, Atque illæ dissensiones erant hujusmodi, Quirites, quæ non ad delendam, sed ad commutandam rempublicam pertinerent-Cic. The dissensions were such, that, or of that kind, that, &c. Nec ulla vis imperii tanta est, quae possit-Cic. It is frequently thus used after dignus, indignus, idoneus, and quam following a comparative.—5thly. Qui, taken for quis, is generally joined with the subjunctive; thus, Sentiet qui vir siem—Ter. Care should be taken not to mistake the interrogative pronouns used indefinitely, for the relative pronoun. If we say, I know not what arts he was taught, the latter clause expresses the subject, and receives the action of the verb. Nescio guibus artibus sit eruditus. Here we evidently express our ignorance, to which of the arts his studies were directed. The pronoun, therefore, is the interrogative, and being indefinitely taken, is joined with the subjunctive. But if we say, I know not the arts in which he was instructed, it is not the latter clause which receives the action of the verb, but the word arts. Artes hand novi, quibus ille est eruditus. Here we express our ignorance of those arts in which he was instructed; and the pronoun is the relative, and joined with the indicative mood.

(9) Ubi, ubicunque, ubi ubi, quò, quocunque, quà, quacunque, adverbs of place, may be followed either by the indicative or the subjunctive when the signification of the verb is indicative: as, Porticus hæc ipsa, ubi ambulamus—Cic. Petentibus, ut ab Norbâ, ubi parum commode essent, alio traducerentur-Liv. Omnes cives Romani, qui ubicunque sunt, vestram severitatem desiderant—Cic. Nunc ubi ubi sit animus, certè in te est—Cic. It is needless to multiply examples in regard to the compounds of ubi, as they naturally follow the construction of their primitive. Ubi neque noti essc iis, quo venerunt, neque semper cum cognitoribus esse possunt— Cic. Sed quocunque venerint, hanc sibi rem præsidio sperant futuram—Cic. Non est, quò properes, terra paterna tibi—Ovid. O quà sol habitabiles illustrat oras-Hor. Quàcunque iter fecit, ejusmodi fuit-Cic. Tum visam belluam vastam, quàcunque incederet, omnia pervertere—Cic. The sense is sometimes such as requires the subjunctive only: as, Hic locus est unus, quò perfugiant-Cic. Habebam, quò confugerem, ubi conquiescerem—Cic.2 Here the sense seems contingent, or potential.

Note 4. Ut, and utcurque, signifying when, if the signification be indicative, are followed only by the indicative mood: as. Ut ab urbe discessi—Cic. Utcurque defecere mores—Hor. But if the sense be contingent, the subjunctive must be used: as, Tu ut subservias orationi, utcurque opus sit verbis, vide—Ter. Ut, when a particle of similarity, and subjoined to ita or sic (both which are sometimes understood) has an indicative: as, Tu tamen has nuptias perge facere, ita ut facis—Ter. Ita uti suprà demonstravimus—Cæs. Ut is sometimes subjoined to ita in a peculiar manner: as, Ita vivam, ut maximos sumptus facio—Cic. Att. 5. 15. i.e. May I die, if I do not. Ut is sometimes used for talis, or tali modo: as, Tu (ut tempus est diei) videsis, ne quò hinc longiùs abeas—Ter. Horum auctoritate finitimi adducti (ut sunt Gallorum subita et repentina consilia) &c.—Cæs. Credo, ut est dementia—Ter.

Note 5. The following words are joined with the subjunctive. (1) Licet (which, in reality, is a verb, ut being understood after it, although used as a conjunction in the sense of etsi: as, Dicam equidem, licet arma mihi mortenque minetur—Virg.

(2) Quo, put for ut, quoniam, or quasi: as, Adjuta me, quò id fiat faciliùs—Ter. but this is, strictly speaking, an example rather

³ For these valuable rules for the construction of qui, we are indebted to Dr Crombie's Gymnasium, a work deservedly held in the highest estimation.

² It may be worth while to remark, that, when the learner, in translating English into Latin, is doubtful whether the sense be contingent, or not, it is safer for him to join the words mentioned in Note 3, with the subjunctive than with the indicative, since, if the sense be indicative, the subjunctive may generally be used, and if contingent it must be used.

of the potential. Non quò illa Lælii sit quicquam dulcius, sed

multo tamen venustior-Cic.

(3) Ut si, ac si, æquè ac si, perinde ut si, aliter ac si, &c., velut si, veluti: as, Triremem in portu agitari jubet, ut si exercere remiges vellet—Nep. Prætereà transversis itineribus quotidiè castra movere, juxta ac si hostes adessent—Sall. Perinde quasi exitus rerum non hominum consilia legibus vindicentur—Liv. Itaque velut si cum alio exercitu exiret, nihit usquam pristinæ disciplinæ tenuit—Liv. Ac veluti stet volucris dies, parcis diripere - - - amphoram—Hor. Cæpti inde ludi, velut ea res nihit ad religionem pertinuisset—Liv. &c.

- (4) Quin, for qui non, quòd non, ut non, or quo minus: as, Quàm nunc nemo est in Sicilia, quin habeat, quin legat—Cic. Fieri nullo modo poterat, quin Cleomeni parceretur—Cic. Nulla tam facilis res, quin difficilis siet, quàm invitus facias—Ter. Non quin rectum esset, sed quia &c.—Cic. Prorus nihil abest, quin sim miserrinus—Cic. Otherwise, this word is followed by the mood which the sense requires: thus, used for cur non, Quin continctis vocem indicem stultitiæ vestræ?—Cic; for imo, the indicative or imperative¹: as, Quin est paratum argentum?—Ter. Quin tu hoc audi—Ter.
- (5) Ut, quo, ne, quominits, referring to the final cause, require the potential, which retains its proper contingent signification, the final cause being a contingency; and, in such instances, the mood cannot, strictly speaking, be considered as under the government of the particle. In regard to the succession of tenses, the general rule is, that if the verb preceding such words be of past time, the verb which follows them must be in the preterimperfect or preterperfect subjunctive: and if the preceding verb be future, or present, the present tense must be used. But to this there are many exceptions, which must be regulated by due attention to the nature of the tenses, and the sense of the subject. Avaro quid mali optes, nisi ut vivat dia?—P. Syr. Philippidem miserunt, ut nuntiaret—Nep. Dixit Romam statim ventures, ut rationes cum publicanis putarent—Cic.2 When the following verb

² It is to be observed, that although a preterite may precede, yet if the action is understood to continue, the present is to be used: as Orare jussit hera, ut ad se venius—Ter. Ea ne me celet, consuefect filium—Ter. In the following, Sublimem medium arripovem, et capite primim in tervam statuerem, Ut cerebro dispergat vian—Ter. Adel. 111. 2. 18, certain critics substitute disperge-

Vossius says, that when quin is used in exhorting or commanding, it takes the indicative or imperative; and that, when used for imo, it is sometimes followed by the subjunctive: as, Hic non est locus, Quin tu alium quæras, cui centones farcias—Plaut. He might have added Quid nunc agitur?—Gn. Quin redcamus—Ter. But, as Ursinus observes, in these quin implies exhortation, which is still clearer in the following, Hortor ne cujusquam misercat, Quin spolies, mutiles, laceres, quemque nacta sis—Ter. It may be added, that in those examples in which Vossius assigns to it the sense of exhorting, it is commonly interpreted by imo.—Quin is a contraction of quine, and its real signification seems to be qui non, or cur non; thus Quin dic is equivalent to Dic, qui non, or cur non? Non dubium est quin urorem notit filius to Non dubium est, qui ne sit, or cur non sit, ut uvorem notit filius.

has no present, we find the perfect used instead of it: as, Rogat, uti meminerint-Sall. If the final cause is to be passing at a future time, the present of the subjunctive should be used: as, Ne dolere quidem possum, ut non ingratus videar-Cic. Irritant ad pugnandum, and fiant acriores-Varr. And here observe, that quò is used, instead of ut, before a comparative; and sometimes, though rarely, when a comparative does not follow: as, Quæ, non quò te celem, non perscribo-Cic. But if the final cause is to be perfect in any time either past, present, or future, then the preterperfect subjunctive is to be used: as, Ne frustra hi tales viri venerint, te aliquando, Crasse, audiamus--Cic. Timeo ne Verres impune fecerit - Cic. Indeed, all such instances are sufficiently regulated by the sense. Ut, ne, quò, quominùs, when used in what is called a relative or connective sense, require the potential mood, and follow the same rules that have been just given: as, Futurum sensit, ut cæteri sequerentur-Nep. Ne quis impediretur, quominus frueretur-Nep. If the dependent action is passing now or at some future time, the present potential is used: as, Orandum est, ut sit mens sana in corpore sano-Juv. Orare jussit, ad se ut venias-Ter. Spero fore, ut contingat id nobis-Cic. (See the preceding Note, imâ pag.) If, in this case, an imperfect precede, the same tense should follow: as, Idem enim impediret, quominus mecum esses, and nunc etiam impedit—Cic. But, if the dependent action is to be considered as completed either in past, present, or future time, the preterperfect subjunctive must be used: as, Si verum est, ut populus R. omnes gentes superarit—Nep. Faciam ut noveris—Ter. Si est, culpum ut Antipho in se admiserit —Ter. But ut after verbs of wishing seems to be excepted from these rules, and to follow the construction of ulinam: as, Cuperem ipse parens spectator adesset-Virg. Quam vellem ut te a Stoicis inclinasses-Cic. Vellem affuisses-Cic. Ut, when corresponding to the intensives ita, adeo, sic, tam, talis, toties, tantus, is, &c. requires the subjunctive, in the same tenses that have been just specified. When the dependent action is represented as passing at a past time, the imperfect is used: as, Cum jam in eo esset, ut oppido potiretur-Nep. When the dependent action is passing at some time present or future, the present is used: as, Adeone ig-

ret, while others consider that the former tense is used for the latter, by the figure Enallage. In Dumid quaro, tibi qui filium restituerem—Ter. Heaut. 111.

1. 83, some would substitute restituam, while others read restiturim, used for restituam, as direris sometimes is for dicas. The past follows the present, when the sense requires it: as, Velim ita fortuna tulisset—Cic. Servis suis ut januam clauderent, et ipsi ad fores assisterent, imperat. Deum precor ut hic dies tibi feliciter illuwerit—Cic. Persuadet Castico ut idem faceret—Cws. In such instances, the present seems to be used historically (see. p. 72), imperat and persuadet having the effect of perfects. Ut is found with the infinitive: as, Ut meliùs quicquid erit pati—Hor. Car. I. 11. 3. for patiaris. This is a Grecism, which we have formerly noticed, under the explanation of the moods and tenses. Some resolve this example thus: Ut (vel cum) melius sit pati quicquid erit, quàm tentare &c. Others thus Ut (vel quanto) melius est wquo animo pati quicquid &c. And others, in different other ways.

narus es, ut hoec nescias—Cic. Nunquam erit tam oppressus senatus, ut ei ne supplicandi quidem ac lugendi sit potestas—Cic. If in this case an imperfect precede, the same tense must also follow. But when the dependent action is represented as complete either in time past, present, or future, the perfect subjunctive is used: as, Videre licet alios tantà levitate, iis ut fuerit non didicisse melius—Cic. Rex tantùm motus est, ut Tissaphernem hostem judicaverit—Nep. Sic erudivit, ut in summá laude fuerint—Nep. In such sentences ut, and, sometimes, quominùs, are used alone, the intensive word being understood.—Ut is used for supposing that, allowing that, before the potential only; and, in like manner, its negative ne: as, Ut enim rationem Plato nullam afferret—Cic. Ut ita dicam—passim. Ne singulos nominem—Liv. Ut is sometimes omitted: as, Unde illa scivit, niger an albus nascerer? Age porro, scisset—Phædr.

(6) Ut qui, utpote qui, utpote quum, generally; and the particles of wishing or praying, utinam, o si1, and ut, for utinam, always have the subjunctive mood: as, Ita tum discedo ab illo, ut qui se filiam daturum neget-Ter. Antonius procul aberat, utpote qui magno exercitu sequeretur-Sall. Me incommoda valetudo, utpote cum sine febri labordssem, tenebat Brundusii--Cic. O mihi præteritos referat si Jupiter annos-Virg. Utinam liberorum mores non perderemus—Cic. Utinam ea res ei voluptati sit--Cic. Ut illum dii deæque perdant-Ter. Indeed, utinam is only a variety of ut or uti, which is used in the last example for utinam, a word of wishing being understood in all such instances. Utinam expresses a wish either for the present, past, or future, and always requires the subjunctive. For the present, the preterimperfect subjunctive is used: as, Utinam pro decore nobis hoc tantum, et non pro salute, esset certamen-Liv. For the past imperfect, the preferimperfect is used: as, Utinam istuc verbum ex animo diceres -Ter. For the past perfect, the preterpluperfect: as, Fecissentque utinam-Virg. For future time, the present subjunctive : as, Utinam illum diem videam-Cic. In the former case, utinam is sometimes omitted by the poets; and in the latter, oftener than it is expressed : as, Me quoque qua fratrem mactasses, improbe, dextra-Ovid. Dii te eradicent-Ter. Quod bene vertat-passim.

¹ Ei is sometimes used for o si, or utinam: as, Si nunc se nobis ille aureus arbore ramus Ostendat nemore in tonto—Virg. Quain vellem is likewise used in the sense of wishing: as, Quain vellem Roma mansisses—Cic. in which, however, ut is understood. Sometimes even the particle and verb are both understood as, Teeum ludere, sicut ipsu, possem—Catull. i. e. opto ut, or utinam, possem. To these may be added such expressions as Ne sim salvus, Ne vivam, (may I die,) which may be thus completed—Ita precor, ita rovvo, ut ne sim salvus, ut ne vivam. Thus also utinam ne; as, Utinam ne in nemore Delio securibus Casa cecidisset abiegna ad terram trabes—Enn. ap. Cic. Instead of which some employ utinam non. Cicero uses both: as, Illud utinam ne verè scriberem—Fam. v. 17. Heec ad te die natuli meo scripsi; quo utinam susceptus non essem, aut ne quid ex cadem matre postea natum esset—Attic. xi. 9. extr.

The ellipsis of utinam is the foundation of what is called the optative mood. But its omission not being allowable in all tenses, nor common in any but the present, it seems scarcely admissible to consider this as a distinct mood. For the future perfect, when it is intended to wish that a future action may be completed, the preterperfect or the preterpluperfect is used: as, Utinam hic surdus, aut hæc muta facta sit-Ter. Utinam (inquit C. Pontius) ad illa tempora me fortuna reservavisset, et tunc essem natus si quando Romani dona accipere cæpissent: non essem passus diutiùs eos imperare-Cic. in which reservavisset implies a wish for past time, and essem natus for future. But ut used for postquam, quam, quomodo, and as an adverb of likeness (see also Note 4), is followed by the indicative; and ne, as an adverb of hindering, by the imperative or subjunctive: as, Ut sumus in Ponto, ter frigore constitit Ister-Ovid. Ut falsus animi est!-Ter. Ut tute es, item omnes censes esse-Plaut. Sometimes, also, the future subjunctive: as, Ut sementem feceris, ita metes-Cic. Abi, ne jura, satis credo-Plaut. Ne fugite hospitium-Virg. Ne post conferas culpam in me—Ter. Non, in a forbidding sense, is always joined with the future indicative, and not with the imperative or subjunctive. Indeed, it is most likely, that ne is, like non, always a mere negative adverb, and that the subjunctive following it is governed by ut understood, which is also frequently expressed: thus, Eisque prædixit, ut ne priùs Lacedamoniorum legatos dimitterent, quam ipse esset remissus-Nep. Sed tamen ita velim, ut ne quid properes -Cic. Ut non is likewise used for ut ne: as, Ut plura non dicam, neque aliorum exemplis confirmem-Cic. Or, for quin: as, Potest igitur, judices, L. Cornelius damnari, ut non C. Marii factum condemnetur-Cic. We also find quò ne with a comparative: as, Cautum erat quò ne plus auri, et argenti facti domi haberemus-Liv.

(7) Dummodo is joined with the subjunctive: as, Omnia honesta negligunt, dummodo potentiam consequantur—Cic. Also dum, when used for it: as, Oderint, dum metuant—Cic.

Note 6. When the English that is not commonly considered as a pronoun, or definitive, and when at the same time it comes between two verbs, it is, in Latin, expressed by ut or quòd with a finite verb following, or the noun after it is put in the accusative, and the verb, in the infinitive mood!—Ut is commonly used after, 1st, Verbs signifying to intreat or request. 2dly, After verbs signifying to decree, happen, order or command, but seldom after jubeo, unless signifying to decree. 3dly, After verbs signifying to advise or persuade, generally. 4thly, After verbs signifying to cause, effect, or bring to pass. 5thly, The articles of every agreement are expressed by ut. 6thly, All intensive words, as adeo, ita, talis, tantus, the pronouns is and hæc, &c. are followed

¹ It was originally intended (see page 88) to introduce here the whole of the discussion relative to that. That part of it, however, which refers to the infinitive or ut or quòd, will be found explained under Rule XLIV.

by ut. This word is generally used to express the final cause, or end proposed; quod, the moving or impelling cause: thus, "Scholam petere solebat, non quòd literarum studiosus erat, sed ut patri morem gereret," He went to school, not that he was desirous of learning, but that he might comply with the humour of his father. Thus also, Gaudeo quod te interpellavi - Cic. Cursorem miserunt, ut nuntiaret-Nep. But in such phrases as Futurum sensit, ut cæteri sequerentur-Nep. and Inde fit, ut raro reperire queamus-Hor., ut does not denote the final cause, but serves rather to point out the connexion or relation subsisting between the preceding verb and the following member of the sentence, and answers to the question by what? Neither does ut, when used after intensives, indicate the final cause, but the manner, as in Nullum tam impudens mendacium est, ut teste careat-Plin. In regard to such sentences, it is to be observed, that the intensive is sometimes implied, as in Fuit disertus (he was so eloquent) ut in primis dicendo valeret-Nep, and that, instead of ut after intensives, and after dignus, indignus, idoneus, major, ejusmodi, &c., qui is often used: as, Quis est tam Lynceus, qui tantis tenebris nihil offendat, nusquam incurrat—Cic. Qui illum decreverunt dig-num, suos cui liberos committerent—Tex. Itane tandem idoneus Tibi videor esse, quem tam aperte fallere incipias dolis!-Ter. Major sum, quam cui possit Fortuna nocere-Ovid. Genus belli est ejusmodi, quòd maximè vestros animos excitare debet-Cic. Missi sunt, qui (or ut) consulerent-Nep, Indeed, it may be added, that in some instances, quod does not denote a moving or impelling cause, but is used merely connectively, when a simple event is expressed, as depending upon a preceding verb; thus Scio jam filins quod amet meus-Plaut. for filium meum amare. Ne is the same as ut ne or ut non; quominus is similar to ne, for quo is used with comparatives instead of ut, and minus is merely a negative; and quin, which is qui ne, is used for quominus, quòd non, or ut non; so that ut, or the sense of it implied, seems the basis of most of these particles.——As it is impossible to class all words with the respective methods of expressing that after them, and as many verbs are followed by different forms, sometimes without any visible difference in the meaning, I shall subjoin to this Rule, from Seyer, an alphabetical list (though not a complete one, one half of the examples of which is, he says, taken from Gesner's Thesaurus) of words followed by the accusative and infinitive, or by certain particles and finite verbs; premising, however, that, upon an examination of his instances, quòd is evidently often used for quia or quoniam, and that several words appear to be followed by ut, not through their own particular nature, but by means of the verb with which they are connected, or some intensive word expressed or implied in the preceding member of the

¹ Ut, denoting the final cause, seems equivalent to the Greek "ve, co fine, in hunc finem, co consilia; and, when used connectively, to "at; whence, as will hereafter be noticed, it is probably derived. Quad may, perhaps, claim the same origin.

sentence; and that all the different forms are not always to be used indifferently, but with a general reference to the several explanations which have been given of the nature and use of the infinitive mood, and of the precise meaning and use of quod and ut. For instance, we may say, Gaudeo te valere, I am glad that you are well, which is equivalent to, Gaudeo tua salute, or valetudine bond; or Gaudeo quod tu vales, or valeas, both being expressions of similar meaning; but we cannot, in this sense, say Gaudeo ut tu valeas, because this would be supposed to mean I am glad (in order) that you may be well. And although we may say Vis me uxorem ducere, Do you wish me to marry, or my marriage, or Vis ut uxorem ducam. Do you wish that I should marry, we cannot use quod in this sense. We may say Suadeo tibi fugere, or ut fugias otium, if the intention, aim, and final cause of advising be to induce you to shun idleness; but we cannot say Suadeo tibi ut (nor quod) rex venerit, if we mean to convey information, the verb not admitting this sense. When persuadeo denotes to persuade, that is, advise thoroughly, or with effect, it is commonly followed by ut; thus, He persuaded me to be, Mihi persuasit, ut essem. But when it signifies to persuade, or to convince, it is followed by the infinitive; thus, He persuaded me, that I was, Mihi persuasit, me esse. In like manner moneo, when it signifies to apprize, by way of counsel, of any truth or fact, requires the infinitive; monentibus amicis, cavendum esse Mutium-Suet. His friends telling him by way of caution. But when advice to action is implied, ut is used. The same author says, Monitus est, ut vim multitudinis caveret. But although we have endeavoured to point out the principal and prominent difference between quod and ut, it must be observed, that, in some instances, the shades of difference become so faint, that their respective significations very much approximate each other. We find even quod used for ut: as, Præmoneo nunquam scripta quod ista legat-Ovid. Mos veterum fuit, quod prætor soleret pronunciare-Ascon. in Verrin. This is not so remarkable in the last example, since, had ut been used, it would have been but as a definitive or connective. Ut for quod: as, Juro ut ego rempublicam non deseram-Liv. Si verum est ut populus R. omnes gentes virtute superarit-Nep. But notwithstanding these and similar instances, there is a distinction generally observed between quod and ut; for, as Ursinus observes, were we to say Dic quod veniat, we simply relate that the thing is doing; if Die ut veniat, we mean, that it may be done: if we say Audivi quod fuerit prælium, we simply declare or specify the thing heard; if Audivi ut facilit prælium, we refer to the manner of the action. We likewise sometimes find qui used as if equivalent to quia or quòd, and as well as quo, used also for ut^{\dagger} ; and, indeed, it is possible that

¹ Thus, Nam in prologis scribendis operam abutitur, Non qui argumentum narret, sed qui malevoli Veteris poëtæ maledictis respondeat—Ter. prol. And., in which qui is supposed to be equivalent to ut. Stultus es, qui huic crotus, in which it is reckoned equivalent to quia or quòd. You are a fool for believing him, or

ut, quod, id, all denoting that, may bear some affinity to one another, since ut, originally written uti, may be ori, and quod, not οττι, qu' otti, quoddi, quodde, (hence quòd,) for we know that, in etymology, k and q, and t and d are respectively esteemed convertible letters. Indeed, or, in whatever way it may be used, is, in reality, the neuter gender of osis, as will be evident by observing the way in which it is sometimes used at the end of a sentence: thus, 'Αλλ' οὐκ ἀποδώσεις, οἶδ' ὅτι-Aristoph. " But you will not restore it, I know that;" or, as we often express the same assertion, "But I know that you will not restore it." When it does not receive the action of the verb, and signifies that or to the end that, like the Latin ut or uti, it is still considered as the pronoun, but governed by $\delta i'$ or $\delta i \hat{\alpha}$, thus $\delta i \hat{\alpha}$ $\delta \tau i$. for that, or for that purpose. And in this way, it likewise denotes the moving or impelling cause, like the Latin quod. Even when the Latin ut or uti is used as an adverb of likeness, denoting as, it may still be considered as having the import of a definitive, since this last is supposed to be the German es, signifying that, it, or which: thus, Illi, ut erat imperatum, circumsistunt, i. e. They surround him, as (or that) had been ordered. And, in English, the that which was formerly denominated a conjunction, is now almost universally considered as an adjective, a definitive, or demonstrative, and is, like quòd, easily resolvable into a relative pronoun, being, as such, a word connecting two parts of a sen-Thus, if we say Benefacis, quod me adjuvas, You do well that you assist me, we may resolve it into Adjuvas me, què id benè facis, You assist me, and that, or rather for that (que ad id or ob id, quod being equivalent to que id,) you do well i. But whether quod be generally the relative; or whether it originally come from the same source as ut,—since the respective imports of these two are so generally considered as greatly dissimilar, are matters concerning which perhaps too much has already been said, as they are subjects rather of curious than of beneficial investigation.

A List of Words having quòd, ut, &c., or the Infinitive Mood, after them².

Abnuo acc. and inf. Abstineo quominùs.

Absum ut, quin. Accedo ut, quòd.

to believe him. Qui huic credis would denote simply, You, who believe him, are a fool. Neque enim hoc feci, quò tibi molestus essem—Plin. in which quò is equivalent to ut. See also Note 5, (5).

There are a few instances in which quòd seems redundant: thus, Quòd simulatque Gracchus perspexit fluctuare populum—Auct. ad. Herenn. iv. 55. Quòd utinam illum eadem hæc simulantem videam—Sall. Jug. 14. 21.

² The classical instances, and their authorities, are here omitted, that the list might not extend beyond the limits necessarily prescribed to a work of this description; but this circumstance is, comparatively, of no great importance,

Accido ut, acc. and inf. Accipio, acc. and inf. Acerbum est, acc, and inf. Addo quòd, ut. Admoneo, see Moneo. Æquitas quæ ut. Æstimo ut. Affirmo, acc. and inf. Ago ut, ne, acc. and inf. Alieno quin. Alius quàm ut, nisi ut. Ambigitur quin. Ango, acc. and inf. Animadverto quod, acc. and inf. Annuo, acc. and inf. Apparet quòd, acc. and inf. Appello quòd. Arguo, acc. and inf. Argumentum quòd, ut, ne, acc. and inf. Assequor ut. Assentior, acc. and inf., ne. Assevero, acc. and inf. Audio, acc, and inf. Auctor est ut, ne, acc. and inf. Autumo, acc. and inf. Bonum, melius, optimum est, ut. Cadit ut. Cano, Canto, acc. and inf. ut. Caput est ut. Caveo, Cautio, ut, ne. Cavillor, acc. and inf. Causa est, quòd, ut, quin. Censeo ne, acc. and inf. Cerno ut (how), acc. and inf. Clamo and comp. ut, acc. and inf. Cogitatio ea ut. Cogo ut. Cognosco quòd, acc. and inf. Committo ut. Comperio, acc. and inf. Competit ut.

Complector ut. Concedo ut, acc. and inf. Conditio ista est ut. Conficio ut. Confido ut, acc, and inf. Confirmo ut, acc. and inf. Confiteor, acc. and inf. Congruo ut. Conor quominùs. Consilium esse ut. Consentio, acc. and inf. Consentaneum est, acc, and inf. Consequor ut ne. Constantia, Inconstantia quæ ut. Constituo ut, acc, and inf. Contendo ut, ne, acc. and inf. Contineo quin, Contingit ut. Convinco, acc. and inf. Convenit ut, ne. Credo, acc. and inf. Custodio ne. Cura, Curo ut, quòd, ne. Decerno ut. Decet, Dedecet, acc. and inf. Declaro, acc. and inf. Deduco quominùs. Definio, Definitio hæc ut, quominùs. Defugio, see Fugio. Demonstro, acc. and inf. Denuntio ut, acc. inf. Deploro, see Ploro. Deprecor ne, ut. Despero acc. and inf. Deterreo ne. Devito ne. Dico-is, acc. and inf., ut and quòd seldom, Dignus est ut. Do ut, acc. and inf. Doceo, acc. and inf.

since the nature of the infinitive mood, and that of $qu \partial d$, ut, &c. have been so fully explained. And, for the same reason, the list itself might have been altogether omitted, without much loss or inconvenience. Indeed, upon a minute inspection, it appears to me both redundant and defective; and, in some respects, so likely to perplex a learner, that I would advise him to rely chiefly on the general rule, and on his own observation. Some of the other lists occupy a considerable space, but their insertion could not, with propriety, be avoided.

Doleo quod, acc. and inf. Dubium est quin. Dubito, an, num, utrum, acc. and inf. Duco (to lead), Adduco ut. Edico ut, ne, acc. and inf. Edictum ne. Efficio ut, ne, acc. and inf. Enuntio, acc. and inf. Eripio quin. Erro quòd. Error hic ut. Evenio ut, quòd. Evinco ut. Excipio ut, ne. Excogito ut. Excuso quòd (for quià). Exigo ut. Existimo, acc. and inf. Exoro ut, ne. Expecto ut. Experior ut. Exploro, acc. and inf. Extremum est ut. Facio ut, quòd. Fallo, acc. and inf. Falsum esse ut. Fama pervenit, acc. and inf. Fateor, acc. and inf. Fero ut, acc, and inf. Fides est, acc. and inf. Fingo, acc. and inf. Fit ut; Fiebat, factum est, &c. Fleo, acc. and inf. Fremo, acc. and inf. Fugio, Defugio ne, quin. Fugit quin. Gaudeo quòd, acc. and inf. Glorior, acc. and inf. Gratia quòd vivo. Gratulor quòd, acc. and inf. Habeo hoc ut. Hortor, Cohortor ne, ut. Impedio ne, quominùs. Impello ut. Impetro ut, ne. Inclamo ut. Incline ut.

Induco ut, ne, quominus. Injicio mentem ut. Instituo ut. Insto ut, ne. Insuesco ut. Integrum erat ut. Intercedo ut ne, quominús. Intelligo, acc. and inf. Interdico ne. Interest ut, acc. and inf. Invito ut. Irascor, Succenseo quòd. Jubeo ut, acc. and inf. Juro, Adjuro, acc. and inf. Jus hoc ut. Juvo, acc. and inf. Laboro, Elaboro ut, ne. Lætor, acc. and inf. Laus est, acc. and inf. Largior ut. Lege eâ ut. Licet ut, acc. and inf. Liquet, acc. and inf. Mando ut ne. Memini, acc. and inf. Mente eâ ne. Mentior, acc. and inf. Metuo, see Timeo. Minor, acc. and inf. Miror, mirus &c. quòd, ut, quin, acc. and inf. Molior ut. Moneo, Admoneo ut, ne, acc. and inf. Mos est ut. Mora est quin. Moror quominus, acc. and inf. Munus est quòd, ut. Narro ut (for quemadmodum). Nascor ut. Necesse est ut, acc. and inf. Nego, Denego, acc. and inf. Negotium dat ut. Nitor, Connitor ut, ne. Nosco, acc. and inf., ut (how). Nuntio, Nuntius, acc. and inf. Objicio quòd. Obliviscor, acc. and inf., ut for quemadmodum.

Obsecro ut, ne. Observo ne. Obsisto, Obsto ne. Obtestor ut, ne. Obtineo ut. Obtrecto ne. Officium primum est ut. Omitto quòd. Opinio, (with ea, ut) acc. and inf. Operam dare ut. 1 Opto ut. Oportet ut, acc. and inf. Oro ut, ne. Ostendo quòd, acc. and inf. Paciscor &c. ut, ne. Parum est quòd, ut. Par est, acc. and inf. Paro ut. Pateo, acc. and inf. Patior ut, quin, acc. and inf. Paveo, see Timeo. Peccatum quòd. Percipio ut, acc. and inf. Perduco ut. Perficio ut. Permitto ut. Perpello ut. Persevero ut. Perspicuum est, acc. and inf. Peto, Postulo, Precor, &c. ut. Plero, Deploro quòd, acc. and Polliceor, acc. and inf. Præcipio ut, ne. Prædico, -as, acc. and inf. Prædico, -is ut, ne, acc. and inf. Præscribo ut, ne. Præsto ut, acc. and inf. Prætereo ut, ne, quin, acc. and Prætermitto as Prætereo. Prævertor quòd. Probo ut, quòd, acc. and inf. Profiteor, acc. and inf. Prohibeo ne, quin, quominùs, acc. and inf. Promitto, acc. and inf. Prope erat ut.

Propositum tertium est ut. Propono ut, acc. and inf. Proprium est civitatis ut. Prospicio, acc. and inf. Prodest quod, quin, acc. and inf. Provideo ne. Pugno ut. Puto, acc. and inf. Quam with comp. degree ut. Queror quòd (because), acc. and inf. Rarum est ut. Recuso ne, quin, quominùs. Refero quòd. Relinquitur ut. Reliquum ut, quominits. Renuntio, acc. and inf. Redr, acc. and inf. Repeto ut. Restat ut. Resisto ne. Respondeo ut. Rogo ut, ne. Sancio ne, acc. and inf. Sapientia quòd. Scelus est quòd. Scio (quòd rarely), acc. and inf. Scribo ut, ne, acc. and inf. Senatûs consultum ne, ut. Sententia una ut. Sequitur ut, acc. and inf. Signum ne, acc. and inf. Simulo, acc. and inf. Sino ut. Spero, Spes ut, acc. and inf. Statuo ne, acc. and inf. Sto ne, quominùs. Struo ut. Studeo ut. Stupeo, acc. and inf. Suadeo ut, dat. and inf. Subeo, Succurro, acc. and inf. Sum, Est ut, (inde est quòd,) acc. and inf. Supplex ut. Suscipio ut. Suspicor ut ne, acc. and inf. Tango ut.

Tempus est ut.
Teneo ut, ne, quin.
Tento ut.
Testis quòd.
Testor, acc. and inf.
Timeo &c. ne, ut, quin, acc.
and inf.
Trado, acc. and inf.
Tribuo ut.
Vereor ne, ut.
Verisimile est ut, acc. and inf.

Verum est ut, acc. and inf.

Veto ne, quominùs, acc. and inf.
Video, acc. and inf.
Visum est mihi ut.
Video for Caveo, ne, ut.
Vinco. Vicit sententia ut, acc.
and inf.
Vis parva naturæ est quòd.
Vim hanc habuit ut.
Vitium est quòd.
Volo ut, acc. and inf.
Utilis ut ne.

LISTS.

Neuter Verbs variously construed under the same Signification.

Accedere muris, Liv. ad urbem, Sall. in oppidum, Cic. accedere domos infernas, Virg. accedere alicui, i. e. assentiri, Quinct. 1

Accidit auribus, Plin. ad aures, Liv. genibus, Id. ad genua, Suet. in te isthuc verbum, Ter.

Accubare horreis, Hor. scortum, Plaut. alicui in convivio, Cic. apud aliquem, Id. Sic.

Accumbere epulis, Virg. in epulo, Cic.

Acquiescere rei alicui, Sen. aliquâ re, Cic. at sæpiùs, in aliqua re, Id.

Adambulare lateri alicujus, Apul. ad ostium, Plaut.

Adequitare portæ, Plin. adequitare Syracusas, Liv.

Adesse pugnæ, *i. e.* præsentem esse, *Cic.* in pugna, *Sall.* ad exercitum, *Plaut.* adesse amicis, *i. e.* auxiliari, *Cic.*

Adhærere lateri, Liv. ad turrim, Cæs. in me, Cic. fronte, pro in fronte, Ovid. Sic.

Adherescere justitie, Cic. ad saxum, Id. in hanc materiam, Id.

Adhinnire equæ, Ovid. equam, Plaut. ad orationem, Cic.

Adjacere mari, Liv. mare, Nep.

Adnare navibus, Liv. naves, Cæs.

Adnatare insulæ, Plin. ad manum, Id.

¹ Also, in the same sense, Accedere ad sententiam alicujus—Plant. But when the noun denotes a person, the dative is used; for with an accusative of a person and ad, accedo signifies to go. When it signifies to be added to either construction may be used: as, Hoc accedit domnis—Ovid. Ad hace multi hoc mihi accedit. In this sense, also, the dative of a person is usually preferred. When it denotes to happen to, the dative only is used: as, Huic nihil possit offensionis accedere—Cic. To arrive at, the accusative with ad: as, Quis ita ad venustatem Æsopi accedat.

U

Adrepere virorum animis, Tac. ad amicitiam alicujus, Cic.

Adstare mensis domini, Mart. trabes, V. Flac. ad Achillis tumulum, Cic. in conspectu, Id.

Adstrepere alicui, Tac. aures alicujus, Plin.

Adsultare vallo, Sil. moras portarum, Stat.

Advenire alicui, Tac. urbem, Virg. ad urbem, Ovid. Sic.

Adventare alicui, Tac. portis, Stat. locum, Tac. ad Italiam, Cic.

Adversari alicui, Cic. aliquem, Tac.

Advigilare alicui, *Tib.* ad custodiam ignis, *Cic.*

Adulari alicui, Curt. aliquem, Cic. Col. Tac.

Advolare rei, vel homini, Plin. Virg. ad equites, Liv. advolat rostra Cato, Cic.

Afflare alicui rei vel personæ, Hor. aliquem vel. aliquid, Virg. aliquid alicui, Virg.

Affluere alicui, Ovid. ad aliquid,

Allabi oris, Virg. ad exta, Liv. aures alicujus, Virg.

Allatrare alicui, Aur. Vict. aliquem sæpiùs, Liv. Plin. Col.

Alludere alicui, Plin. ad mulierem, Ter.

Anniti hastæ, Virg. ad aliquid, Cic. aliquid, i. e. conari perficere, Plin.

Antecedere alicui rei, Cic. aliquem, Id. antecedere aliquem ætate, nobilitate, magnificentià, Justin. Suet. rarò alicui.

Antecellere alicui, Cic. rarissimè aliquem

Anteire alicui, Cic. aliquem,

Tac. alicui ætate, Cic. omnes glorià, Sall. cæteros virtute, Cic.

Antestare cæteris virtute, Gell. cæteros robore, Apul.

Antevenire rei alicui, Plaut. aliquem, Sall. tempus, Claud.

Antevertere alicui, i. e. ante eum venire, Ter. Sic. antevertere damnationem veneno, i.e. prævenire, Tac. At, antevertere rem rei, est præponere, Plaut.

Apparere alicui, i. e. officii aut obsequii causâ præsto esse: ut, Lictores apparent Consulibus, Liv. Apparent ad solium Jovis, Virg. 1

 Appropinquare Britanniæ, Cas. portam, Hirt. ad portam, Id. appropinquat alicui pæna, Cic.

Arridere alicui, i. e. placere, Hor. Arridere ridentibus, Id. aliquid, Gell.

Aspirare coptis, Ovid. ad aliquem, i. e. pervenire, Cic. ad laudem, i. e. contendere, Id. in curiam, Id.

Assidere ægro, Senec. Assidet insano, i. e. proximus est, Hor. Assidere aliquem, Sall.

Assistere alicui, Plin. ad fores, Cic. super aliquem, Virg. contra aliquem, Cic. Assistere equos, i. e. sistere, Stat.

Assuesco, assuefacio, assuefio, re aliquâ: Genus pugnæ quo assueverant, Liv. Puro sermone assuefacta domus, Cic. Assuescere rei alicui, Liv. Operi assuefecit, Id. Assuescere ad homines, Cæs. In hoc assuescat, Quinct. animis bella, Virg.

Attendere Cæsari, *Plin.* juri, *Suet.* aliquem, *Cic.* res hostium, *Sall.* animum, *Ter.* animum ad rem aliquam, *Cic.*

¹ When it denotes to be conspicuous, or to be clear, it is generally followed by the dative only: as, Apparet mihi res—Hor. Cui non apparere, affectare eum imperium in Latinos—Liv.

Auscultare alicui, Ter. aliquem, Plant.

Blandiri sensibus, Cic. igneam sævitiam, Colum.

Colludere alicui, Hor. cum aliquo, Cic.

Confido, Vid. Fido.

Congruere alicui, Ter. cum re aliqua, Cic. inter se, Id.

Constare sibi, Cic. secum, Id. Constat inter omnes, Nep. Res mihi cum aliis constat, Auct. ad Her.

Consuescere alicui, Ter. cum aliquo, Plaut. libero victu, Colum. juvencum aratro, pro

consuefacere, Id.

Consulere alicui, Ter. famæ alicujus, Cic. de salute sua, Id. duriùs in aliquem, Tac. in longitudinem, Ter. in commune, in medium, in publicum, Ter. Lucan. Plin.

Convenire alicui, Cic. cum re aliqua, Id. Convenit in eum hæc suspicio, Id. Cothurnus convenit ad pedem, Id. Conveniunt mores, Ter. Majestas et amor non conveniunt, Ovid. Ætatem aliam aliud factum convenit, Plaut. Aliquid mihi convenit cum adversariis, Auct. ad Her. Conveninus inter nos, Plaut. Inter omnes convenit, Cic. Sævis inter se convenit ursis, Juv.

Deficiunt mihi vires, Cæs. me vires, Cic. Deficior viribus, Senec. omnibus rebus, Col. ab arte, i. e. destituor, Ovid.

Degenerare patri, Claud. aliquem, Ovid. a virtute, Cic.

Derogare alicui, Cic. legi, Auct. ad Her. de lege, Cic. ex æquitate, Id. fidem alicui, Id. de fide alicujus, Id.

Desperare saluti alicujus, Cic. de republica, Id. pacem, Id.

rempublicam, Id.

Desuescerehonori, Sil. Desueta bello agmina, Virg. At hoc dativo an ablativo dictum, incertum.

Desunt verba dolori, Ovid: In Antonio defuit hic ornatus, Cic. Paucæ ei centuriæ ad Consulatum defuerunt, Id.

Dominari cunctis oris, Virg. in cætera animalia, Ovid. in civi-

tate, Cic.

Excellere alicui dignitate, Cic. in aliqua re, Id. super alios, Liv. aliter, inter, præter cæteros, Cic. inter aliquos, Id.

Facere ad aliquid, pro prodesse vel convenire, Ovid. et alii frequenter. Rarò hac notione, facere alicui, Prop. Hor.

Fidere, confidere rei alicui, Virg. Cic. re aliqua, Id. in re aliqua, Hirt.²

Gratulor tibi hanc rem, Cic. hâc

¹ Some have supposed this case to be the dative; and some the ablative. Alvarez conceives it to be the dative, and in the following it certainly is this case; Toti deminabere mundo—Claudian. Diomedes and Vossius have imagined it to be the ablative. Alvarez considers such expressions as Dominatus est Alexandrice, Victis dominabitur Argis, as similar to Natus est Romæ, Athenis. Dominor is often followed by inter.

² When the following noun is a person, the dative only is used; as, Confido tibi, not te, unless te depend upon some infinitive. Fido is often followed by the dative, and often by the ablative, but perhaps by the latter oftener. Confido is construed in like manner: as, Sibi confidere—Cic. causs—Cic. firmitate corporis—Cic. in which last there is an ellipsis of in. It is often construed with the infinitive: as, Confido fore; and thus also diffido. When this last denotes to distrust, it governs the dative only: as, Prudentiæ alicujus diffidere—Cic. But we say Confidere or Diffidere de salute alicujus, and the like, in which the former seems to denote to have hopes of, and the latter to despair of.

re, Cæl. ap. eund. de hac re, Cic. in hac re, Id.

Hæret lateri, Virg. curru, Id. alicui in visceribus, Cic.

Ignoscere alicui, Ter. vitio, Ovid. peccatum suum alicui, Plaut.

Illudere alicui, Virg. aliquem, Ter. aliquid, Virg. in aliquem, Ter. in aliquo, Id.

Illabi rei alicui, Virg. in rem aliquam, Cic. Pernicies illapsa civium animos, Id. ad eos illabi, Id.

Illuxit dies alicui, Liv. aliquem, Plaut.

Imminere rei alicui, Ovid. in fortunas alicujus, Cic.²

Immorari rei alicui, V. Max. in re aliquà, Quint.

Immori studiis, Hor. in vino,

Impendêre alicui, Cic. aliquem, Ter. in aliquem, Cic.

Incessit cura, cupido, timor alicui, Liv. V. Max. Sall. aliquem, Liv. Tac. in aliquem, Ter.

Incubare ovis, Col. ova, Plin. pecuniæ, thesauris, Cic. Liv.

Incumbere toro, Virg. gladium, Plaut. in gladium, Cic. labori, Sil. ad laudem, Cic. ad studia, Id. in studium, curam, cogitationem, Id.3

Incurro et incurso rei alicui, Suet. rem aliquem, Liv. in rem aliquam, Cic.

Indulgeo illi, Ter. me, Id. aliquid alicui, Suet.

Ingemere, ingemiscere rei alicui, Liv. re aliquà, Curt. in re aliquà, Cic. Ingemuere jacentem Inachidæ, Stat. interitum, Virg.

Inhæreo et inhæresco rei alicui, Ovid. in re aliqua, Cic.

Inhiare auro, Flor. bona alicujus, Plaut. Virg.

Innare aquæ, Liv. fluvium, Virg.

Innasci rei alicui, Ter. in re aliqua, Cic. Innati eodem solo, Just.

Innatare flumini, *Plin.* undam, *Virg.* in concham, *Cic.*

Inniti rei alicui, Stat. re aliqua, Liv. in re aliqua, Cic. in aliquem, Plin.

Insidère rei alicui vel personæ, Virg. collem, Plin. locum, Liv. in memoria, in animo, in medullis, i. e. firmiter inhærere, Cic.

Insidunt apes floribus, Virg. pardiinsidunt condensâ arbore. Plin.

Insilire rei alicui, *Lucan*. in equum, *Liv*. tauros, *Suet*. supra lignum, *Phædr*.

Insistere curæ rerum, Plin. vestigiis alicujus, Cic. viam, Tervià, Id. in re aliqua, Cic. in dolos, Plaut. negotium, Id.

Instare operi, Virg. victis, Liv. rectam viam, Plaut. currum Marti, i. e. instanter fabricare, Virg. unum, i. e. instanter urgere, Ter.

² Also, Imminere fortunis—Cic. ad cædem—Id.

¹ Hærere in amorem—Plaut. Ad radices linguæ hærens stomachus—Cic. In Hæret pede pes—Virg. either pede is an old dative, or it may be an ablative governed by cum or some other preposition.

When this word is not used figuratively, the dative according to Valla is used: as, Incumbere remis, not in remos nor ad remos. Incumbere alicui, in illum and in illo, referring to a person, are all mentioned as having been used. But when, figuratively, the mind is referred to, it is followed by an accusative with ad or in: as, Omni studio ad bellum incumbere—Cic. Incumbe in hanc curum—Cic. In this signification it hardly admits a dative: but Incumbere philosophiæ, vel juris studio, and a few similar expressions are noticed.

Inspuere rei alicui, Plin. aliquid, Id. in aliquid, Id.

Insuere rei alicui, Ovid. pelle juvenci, Id. culco, V. Max. in culeum, Cic.

Insuescere rei alicui, Tac. re

aliquâ, Colum.

Insultare alicui rei vel personæ, Suet. Cic. fores, Ter. patientiam alicujus, Tac. in miseriam alicujus, Auct. ad Her. bonos, Sall.

Insum rei alicui, Sen. in re ali-

qua, Cic.

Insurgere regnis alicujus, Ovid. in miseros, Stat.

Insusurrare alicui, Cic. in aurem alicujus, Id.

Intercedit mihi tecum amicitia,

Cic. inter nos, Id. 1 Interdicere alicui provinciâ, Suet. aquâ et igni, Cic. fceminis usum purpuræ, Liv.º

de vi hominibus armatis, Cic. Interesse rei alicui, Cic. in re aliqua, Id.3

Interjacere sulcis, Col. duas Syrtes, Plin. Hæc inter eam et Rhodum interjacet, Id.

Intervenire alicui rei, Tac. cog-

nitionem, 1d.

Invasit timor improbis, Cic. Vis avaritiæ in animos invaserat, Sall. Invadere urbem, Virg. in fortunas alicujus, Cic. in arcem causæ, Id.

Invidere honori alicujus, Cic. honorem alicui, Hor. aliquem, Ovid. in re aliqua, Cic.4

Latet res mihi, Lucan. Latet

me, Virg.3

Mederi alicui, Cic. cupiditates, Ter. contra serpentum ictus, Plin.

Medicari alicui, Virg. ictum

cuspidis, Id.

Moderari animo, Cic. gentibus, Sall. navim, Cic. omnia, Id. Nocere alicui, Cic. rarissimè ali-

quem, Plaut.

Nubere alicui, Cic. in clarissimam familiam, Id. Nupta

1 It is sometimes used absolutely: as, Unus et alter dies intercesserat—Cic. i. e. inter hoc et illud factum; or, as we say in English, had intervened. Senatûs auctoritas intercessit-Cic. i. c. medium se interposuit, vel, impedivit: in which last sense it seems that Seneca says Quoties poterit, supiens fortuna in-Whether we can use intercedere pro aliquo, for to supplicate in behalf of, or to intercede for, seems questionable.

Interdico te hac re is very uncommon; but this case seems to be sanctioned by such phrases as Philosophi urbe et Italia interdicti sunt-Gell. Its usual construction seems to be with the dative, and an ablative: as, Vos interdicitis patribus commercio plebis-Liv. Interdixit histrionibus scenam is written by Suetonius; and Omni Gallia Romanos interdixisset is attributed to Cæsar; but some read Romanis. Interdicor aqua et igni does not seem to be sanctioned And in Cicero's Ut M. Tullio aqua et ignis interdicatur; and by authority. Ut mihi aqua et ignis interdicerctur, it is thought by the best critics that aqua and ignis are mistaken for aquâ et igni.

3 Here intersum signifies to be present; but when it signifies to come between or to differ, a different construction is used: as, Inter primum et sextum consulatum 46 anni interfuerunt—Cic. Hoc pater et dominus interest—Ter. Stulto

intelligens quid interest? - Ter.

4 This verb is commonly construed with the dative of the person, and the accusative of the thing. That it may have been construed, especially by the antients, with the accusative of the person, appears from Horace's Ego cur acquirere pauca Si possum, invideor.

5 Latet has commonly the dative in Cicero; as Nihil moliris quod mihi latere valeut; and this case seems more consonant with the analogy of the Latin language than the accusative, which seems an imitation of Greek construction.

cum aliquo, Id. Una nupta apud duos, Gell.1

Obambulare muris, Liv. ante portas, Id. Ætnam, Ovid.

Obequitare castris, Liv. agmen,

Obrepere alicui, Cic. in animos dormientium, Id. ad honores, Id. Tacitum te obrepet fames, Plaut.

Obtrectare alicui, Cic. laudibus alicujus, Cic. vires, V. Max.

Obversari oculis, Liv. ante oculos, Id. ad aures, Lucr. somno, Liv. in somnis, Id.

Obumbrat sibi vinea, Plin. Obumbrant Solem nubes, Id.

Occumbere morti, Virg. mortem, Cic. morte, Liv.

Palpari alicui, Plaut. Palpare

aliquem, Juv.

Parcere alicui, Cic. labori, Ter. pecuniam, Plaut. Ut parcerent sibi vitam, Gell. Talenta natis parcetuis, Vîrg. Utà cædibus parceretur, Liv. Parcite oves nimiùm procedere, Virg.

Pepigit mihi aliquid, Ovid. Pepigit cum aliquo, Suet. Pepigerunt inter se, Auct. ad Herenn. Sic. Paciscor alicui, Cic. cum aliquo, Id. Pacisci vitam ab aliquo, Sall. vitam pro laude, Virg.

Præcedunt vestræfortunæ meis, Plaut.Præcedere aliquem virtute, Cæs. omnes in re aliqua, Plin. Præcedere agmen, Virg.

Prin. Præcedere agmen, ν irg. Præcurrere alicui, Cic. aliquem, Id. ante omnes, Cæs.

Præire alicui, Stat. i. e. præcede-

re aliquem. Præire alicui verba, sacramentum, Liv. Tac. i. e. dictare. Præire verbis, Plaut. voce alicui, Cic. descripto, Plin.

Præjacens Asiæ vastum mare, Plin. Præjacere castra, Tac.

Præminere omnibus, Sen.² malos, Tac.

Præsidere urbi, imperio, Cic. exercitum, Italiam, littora Oceani, Tac.

Præstare alicui, Cic. omnibus humanitate, Id. omnes eloquentià, Nep.³

Præstolari alicui, Cic. aliquem,

Ter.4

Prævertere aliquid rei alicui, Liv. uxorem præ republica, Plaut. Cursu pedum prævertere ventos, Virg. Et passivè, Prævertihoc certum est rebus aliis omnibus, Plaut. Ut bellum præverti sinerent, Liv. Volucremque fugå prævertitur Hebrum, Virg.

Procumbere terræ, Ovid.⁵ genibus alicujus, Id. ad genua, Liv. ante pedes, Ovid. in ar-

mos, Mart.

Providere rei frumentariæ, Cæs. rem frumentariam, Cæs. de re frumentariâ, Cæs.

Quadrare alicui, Cic. in aliquem, Id. ad multa, Id. acervum, i. e. in quadrum redi-

gere, Hor.

Respondere alicui, Cic. his, Cas. ad hæc, ad postulata, Id. ad nomen, Liv. votis alicujus, i. e. satisfacere, Virg. ad spem, Liv. Servire, inservire alicui, Hor.

Some read pranitere.
 Also, Prastitit inter suos aquales—Cic.
 Cicero often construes this verb with a dative; but almost every other writer uses the accusative.

⁵ Terræ may here be perhaps the genitive, as in Procumbit humi bos, in solo being understood to both.

¹ Thus also Denubere alicui—Tac. And Denubere in domum alicujus—Tac. It is very probable, that as nubo seems to signify properly velare, to cover, or to veil, an accusative is always understood to it.

Cic. rarissimè aliquem, Plaut.

Turpil.

Studere alicui rei, i, e. operam dare, Cic. literas, Id. aliquid, i. e. cupere, Cic. in eam rem, Quinct. in eâ re, Gell. Studere alicui, i. e. favere, Cic.

Subesse rei alicui, Cic. in re ali-

quâ, Id.

Subire muro, Virg. feretro, Id. Subeunt mihi cunctarum fastidia, Ovid. Subire tecta, Virg. limina, Id. ad mœnia, Liv. ad portas, Id. in locum alicujus, Ovid. in cœlum, Plin. sub acumen styli, Cic. Subibat me, viros finxisse cæcam esse fortunam, Apul. At subire onus, labores, pænam, periculum, &c, item, subiit a-

nimum, mentem, ferè semper dicuntur.1

Subjacere monti, Plin. ad ali-

quid, Quinct.

Succedere penatibus, Virg. muro, Liv. murum, Sall. ad urbem, Liv. sub primam aciem, Cas. in pugnam, Liv. Succedere alicui et in locum alicujus, Cic.

Superstare alicui rei, Liv. ali-

quem, Virg.

Supervenire alicui, Liv. Unda supervenit undam, Hor.

Venire alicui, Ovid. multò frequentiùs ad aliquem, Cic. subsidio alicui, Cic. suppetias, Hirt. B. Afr. adversum alicui, Plaut. subictum telorum, Liv.

To these may be added the following List of Verbs sometimes employed as Active or Neuter², in the same Sense, or in one a little different from the primary Signification.

Abhorreo, N. (usually.) A. Omnes illum abhorrent et asper-

nantur, Cic.

Abnuo, Annuo. N. Annuit his Juno, Æn. 12, 841. A. Jam abnuentes omnia, Sall. Jug. Omen abnuit Æneas, Æn. 5, 531. Cœli quibus annuis arcem, Æn. 1, 250.

Aboleo. A. Corpus nonigni abolitum, *Tac.* N. Memoria cladis nondum aboleverat, *Liv.*

perhaps se understood.

Adolesco or Adoleo. A. Igne puro altaria adolentur, Tac.

hist. 2, 3, 5. N. Adolescunt ignibus are, Georg. 4, 379.

And in a different sense, Simul atque adoleverit ætas, Hor. sat. 1, 9, 34.

Adulor. N. Potenti adulari, Nep. 25, 8, 6. A. Adulari fortunam alterius, Cic. de divin. 2.

plebem, Liv. 23, 4.

Æquo.A. (us.: N. Libros, qui jam illis fere æquarunt, studiosè legas, Cic. off. 1, 1, al. 3. Ita signis carpentisque et spoliis fermè æquabat, Liv. 33, 24. perhaps se is understood.

¹ Subso is often used absolutely: as, Subiit cogitatio, memoria, cura, &c. in which animum or mentem is understood; indeed, it is generally expressed. In the same sense, Subiit regem sera prenitentia—Curt. and, with the accusative suppressed, Subiit cari genitoris imago—Virg. In this sense the dative is found: as, Subsant animo Latmia sava tuo—Ovid.

² In the same manner we sometimes find, in English, such expressions as "To cease a noise," for "To make a noise cease." Thus also "To run a horse," "dance a child," "sleep away sorrow, a surfeit, &c.," with many si-

milar examples.

Æmulor. A. Pindarum quisquis studet æmulari, Hor. od. 4, 2, 1. N. Tanquam mihi ab infimo quoque periculum sit, ne mecum æmuletur, Liv. 28, 43.

Æstuo, Exæstuo. N. (us.) A. Pisæumque domus non æstuat annum, Stat. (i. e. æstuando exhibet annum.) Omnes exæstuat æstus, Lucr. 6, 816. But this is a cognate Acc.

Ambulo. N. (us.) A. Ambulare maria, Cic. de fin. 2, ad fin. Si ambulantur stadia bina,

Plin. 23, 1.

Anhelo. N. (us.) A. De pectore frigus anhelans, Cic. nat.
d. 2. Anhelare crudelitatem,
Auct. ad Herenn. 4, 55. Anhelati ignes, Ovid. Her. 12, 15.

Appello, -is. A. (us.) N. Eo anno Alexandrum in Italiam classe appulisse constat, Liv. 8, 3. perhaps se understood.

Appeto. A. (us.) N. Jam appetebat tempus, Liv. 25, 2.

Applaudo. Ñ. (us.) A. Applaudit manu caput, Nemes. ecl. 3, 33. Cavis applauso corpore palmis, Ovid. met. 4, 352.

Ardeo. N. (us.) A. Corydon ar-

debat Alexin, Virg.

Arrideo. N. (us.) A. Quum aut non adhibeantur ad causas, aut adhibiti derideantur: nam si arrideantur, esset id Atticorum, Cic. de. opt. gen. orat.

Ascendo. A. Ascendere jugum, Cæs. b. G. 1, 21. N. Ascendisset ad honores, Cic. de cl.

orat. 241, c. 58.

Assuesco, Consuesco, Insuesco.
N. Ut aliis parere consuescerent, Cic. de inv. 1, 2. A.
Consuescere rusticos circa larem domini epulari, Colum.
11, 1. Sic insuesci debent,
Colum. 1. (See the preceding
List.)

Audeo. N. Aude, hospes, contemnere opes, En. 8, 364.

But here hoc seems understood, or contemnere opes supplies the place of an accusative. A. Periculum audebant, Tac. ann. 3, 76. In regnis hoc ausa tuis, En. 5, 792.

Cachinno or Cachinnor. N. (us.)
A. Exitium meum cachinnat,

Apul met. 3.

Careo. N. (us.) A. (antiquated)
Collum collaria caret, Plaut.
Carendus is used by the best
writers: as, Virque mihi
dempto fine carendus abest,
Ov. pen. ul.—But this is no
proof of its being active.

Cavillor. A. Tribunos cavillans, Liv. 2, 58. N. Sæpe cum populo cavillatus est, Suet.

Tit. 8.

Cedo, Concedo. A. Eam provinciam collegæ cessit, Val. Max. 4. Perizonius imagines quod ad understood. Concedere dolorem, Cic. N. Tu ne cede malis, Virg. Concedam hinc intro atque expectabo, Ter.

Celero. N. or, rather, absolutely. Celerare statuit, Tac. Si accelerare volent, Cic. Cat. 2, 4. A. (us.) Celerare fugam, Virg. Iter accelerare, Cas. b. G. 3, 39. magistratum, Tac. Itineribus celeratis, Ammian. 31,

11.

Certo. N. (us.) A. Si res certabitur unquam, Hor. Certare rem, Sedig. ap. Gell. 15, 24. Certatam lite deorum Ambraciam, Ov. met. 13, 713. Thus also, Concertare quid, Ter. Ad. 2, 2, 2. Quæ non sunt concertata, Cic. part. c. 28.

Cesso. N. (us.) It is used passively only as an impersonal, or in the perfect participle:

thus, Largaque provenit cessatis messis in arvis, Ov. fast. 4, 617. But this is no proof of cesso being active.

Clamo, Clamito, and comp. N. (us.) A. Clamare morientem nomine, Æn. 4, 674. Conclamat socios, Ov. met. 13, 73. Inclamavit comitem suum, Cic. inv. 2, 4. Exclamat uxorem, Plaut. Amph. Inclamitor quasi servus, Plaut. *Epid.* 5. 2, 46. Clamitare calliditatem videntur, Cic. pro Rosc. com. 20, 7. Clamata palma, Ov. fast. 5, 189. Corpora conclamata, Lucan. 2, 22.

Coëo. N. (us.) A. Coire societatem, Cic. Phil. 2, 10. Societas coitur, Cic. pro Sext. Rosc. c. 7. Societas and societatem are the only words thus used.

Cœno. N. (us.) A. Ut aprum cœnem ego, Hor. sat. 2, 3, 235. Eum odorem cænat Ju-

piter, Plaut. pseud.

Cogito. A. (us.) N. Mihi de amicitià cogitanti, Cic. Amic. 1. De me cogites, Ter. Eun. 1, 2, 114. In these it is only absolute.

Conflagro. N. (us.) A. Conflagravit Semelen Jupiter, Hygin. fab. 129. Urbs incendio conflagrata, Auct. ad Herenn. 4, 8. But neither these nor the deflagrata domus in Cæsar Strabo ap. Prisc. 6, will prove the use of conflagror and deflagror, nor an active signification in flagro.

Contingo. A. (us.) N. (and perhaps impers.) Id in magnis animis contingit, Cic. off. 1,

71, c. 22.

Consisto. N. (us.) A. (for constituo) Et per quæ vitam possunt consistere tutam, Lucr. 6. Contendo, A. (us.) N. Plato in

Ægyptum contendit, Cic. Contendere armis, Cic. Att 7, 9. nobilitate, Lucr. It appears to me always active, cursum, iter, or nervos, being, according to the sense, understood.

Convenio. N. (us.) In urbem crebro convenio, Plaut. Truc. 3, 2, 14. i. e. I go. A. Puerum conveni, Ter. And. 2, 2, 31, i. e. I met. Non est is a me conventus, Cic. Att. 15, 1, i. e. met. Pax conventa. Sall. b. Jug. 112, i. e. agreed upon. (See the preceding and

the following List.)

Corusco, N. Flamma inter nubes coruscat, Cic. de orat. 3, 155, c. 39. It is said to be usually Neuter; but may not the reflective pronoun be understood? A. (In the sense of to brandish or shake.) Strictumque coruscat mucronem, Æn. 10. Coruscare hastam, Æn. 12. Also neuter or absolute in the same sense: as, Longa coruscat sarraco veniente abies, Juv. 3, 254. Coruscandis nubibus, Apul. de deo Socr. p. 675.

Crepo, Concrepo. N. Quando esurio, [intestina] crepant, Plaut. Men. 5, 5, 26. Sed ostium concrepuit, Ter. Hec. 4, 1, 6. A. Sulcos et vineta crepat mera, Hor. ep. 1, 7, 84, i. e. chatters of. Concrepat æra, Mart. i. e. makes them ring, or jingle. Digitos concrepare, Petron. i. e. to snap the fingers; al. digi-

tis.

Credo. A. Num puero summam belli, num credere muros. *En.* 10, 70. N. Crede mihi, benê qui latuit benê vixit, Ov. Credo is followed also by a genitive: as, Duarum rerum credere, Plaut. Truc. 2, 2, 52, i. e. quod attinet. — Nimium ne crede colori, Virg. ecl. 2, 17.

Cunctor. N. (us.) A. Ut dubium et pugnas cunctantem Eteoclea vidit, Stat. 11, 268.

Curro and comp. N. (us.) A. (but generally cognate accusative.) Currit iter tutum, Æn. 5, 862. stadium, Cic. off. 3. Cuncta decurrere possum, Virg. vitam, Prop. inceptum laborem, Virg. Geo. 2, 39. Recurrere cursum, Plaut. Cist. 2, 3, 50. Cælum transcurrere, Æn. 9, 110. cursum, Cic. de cl. orat. 281. divisiones, Quinct. 4, 2, 2. Decursa ætas, Cic. pro Quinct. c. 31.

Declino. A. Urbem unam declinavi, Cic. pro Planc. 97. v. 41. me, Plant. Aul. 4, 8. Declinantur contraria, Cic. nat. d. 3, 13. N. Declinare à proposito, Cic. orat. 40. Se

seems understood.

Desino. N. (us.) A. Mulier telam desinit, Ter. Heaut. 2, 3, 64. Artem desinere, Cic. fam. 7, 1. Orationes legi desitæ, Cic. Brut. c. 32.

Despero. N. (us.) A. Pacem desperavi, Cic. Att. 7, 20. Desperabantur prælia, Mart.

Spect. 22.

Despició. A. (us.) N. Neque in vias sub cantu querulæ despice tibiæ, Hor. od. 3, 7, 29.

Differo. A. Rem differre et procrastinare cœperunt, Cic. pro Sex. Rosc. 9. N. (in a different sense.) Cogitatione differunt, re copulata sunt, Cic. Tusc. 4.

Doleo. N. (us) A. Meum casum doluerunt, Cic. pro Sext. c. 69. Pœna dolenda, Ovid. Her. 5, 8.

Dubito. N. (us.) A. Turpe est

dubitare philosophos, quæ ne rustici quidem dubitant, Cic. Dubitare aliquid, Ovid. met. 6, 194. Ne auctor dubitaretur, Tac. ann. 14, 7, 1.

Duro. A. Frictio durat corpus, Cels. 2, 15. N. Asinius penè ad extremum duravit, Cic. dial. de orat. 17, i. e. lasted.

Ebullio. N. Ubi ebullit vinum, Cato. A. Virtutes ebullire et sapientias, Cic. Tusc. 3, 18, i. e. to vaunt of. Animam ebullit, Sen. in Apocol.

Edormio. N. (us.) A. Edormi crapulam, et exhala, Cic. Phil. i. e. sleep off or away.

Emergo. N. (us.) A. Quibus ex malis ut se emerserat, Nep. Attic. 11, 1. Ex flumine emersus, Cic. div. 2, 68.

Emineo. N. (us.) A. Moles aquam eminebat, Curt. 4.

Equito. N. Equitare in arundine, *Hor.* A. Atque etiam [cameli] equitantur, *Plin.* 8.

Erumpo. N. Erumpunt portis, Virg. A. Erumpere stomachum in aliquem, Cic. Att. 16, 3. Portis se erumpunt, Cæs. b. c. 2. May not se be understood in the first example? Prorumpit ad æthera nubem, Æn. 3, 572. Erupti ignes, Lucr. 1, 724.

Erro. N. (us.) Errata retrorsum littora, Æn. 3, 690. But neither does this, nor the impersonal erratur, prove erro to be active, or errare terras

to be allowable.

Erubesco. N. (us.) A. Affines te erubescunt, Cic. Erubescendi ignes, Hor. amores, Sen. controv. 2.

Evado. N. In loca tuta evasit. Liv. 28. A. Me evasit, Suet. Tib. Evasum se esse, Liv.

Evigilo. N. Evigilavit in undis, Stat. sylv. 5, 3, 128. A. Quos

studium cunctos evigilavit idem, Ov. trist. 1, 1, 108. Evigilata consilia, Cic. Attic.

9, 12.

Exeo. N. Postquam e portu piratæ exierant, Cic. Verr. 5, 71. A. Jam ut limen exirem, Ter. Hec. 3, 3, 17, but this is unusual. It is used in the sense of to avoid, with an accusative: as, Corpore tela modò atque oculis vigilantibus exit, Æn. 5, 438.

Exerceo. A. (us) Exercentes and Exercendo are used absolutely: as, Exercentes ephebi, Suet. Aug. 98.

Exhalo. N. Exhalant vapore altaria, Lucr. A. Exhalant flumina nebulas, Ov. met. 13, 602. Exhalata anima, Ov. met. 11, 43.

Exubero. N. Pomis exuberet annus, Virg. Georg. 2, 516. A. Quæ herbæfavorum ceras exuberant, Colum. 9, 4.

Facesso. A. (us.) Matris præcepta facessit. Georg. 4, 548.

And it is found especially in old writers in the signification of to take away. Dictum facessas tuum, Plaut. Men. 2, 1, 24. Facesse hinc Tarquinios, Liv. 1, 47. And hence the following. N. Ni facesserent properè urbe finibusque, Liv. 4. Hæc hinc facessat, Ter. Phorm. 4, 3, 30, i.e. go away. Perhaps se is understood.

Fastidio. A. Si te hic fastidit, Virg. Dum nullum fastiditur genus, Liv. N. Fastidit mei, Plaut. Aul. 2, 2, 67. Factis sæpè fastidiunt, Cic. pro Mi-

lon. 43.

Festino. N. Festinate, viri, Æn. 2, 373. A. Festinare vestes, Ovid. Met. 11, 575. Festinare in se mortem, Tac. ann.

4, 28, 3. Animo cupienti nihil satis festinatur, Sall. Jug. 64, 6.

Fleo. N. (us) A. Flere funera, Ovid. aliquem, Æu. 7, 760. Longo quod flebitur ævo,

Sil. 5, 187.

Flo and comp: N. Bellè nobis flavit Auster, Cic. Att. 7, 2. Etsi Etesiæ valde reflârint, Cic. Att. 6, 6. A. Flaret e corpore flammam, Lucr. 5, 984. al. efflaret. Lætos efflârat honores, Virg. Tibia flatur, Ov. fast. 4, 841. Aer ducitur atque reflatur, Lucr. 4, 936. Sufflare ignem, Plin. 34, 8. Sufflata cutis, Plin. 8, 38.

Fugio and comp. N. Fuge, nate, propinquant, Æn. 2. Effugit rex e manibus, Cic. pro L. M. c. 9, 22. A. Fugere aliquem, Ovid. met. 3, 384. Paupertas fugitur, Lucan. 1, 165. Effugere periculum, Ccs. b. G. 4, 35. Defugere administrationem reipublic.

Cæs. b. c. 1, 32.
Gemo, Ingemo. N. (us.) A.
Gemere casum alicujus, Æn.
1, 221. Hic status gemitur,
Cic. Att. 2, 18. Ingemuisse
leones interitum, Virg. Clades
ingemiscenda, Ammian. 30, 7.

Gratificor. A. Decus atque libertatem potentiæ gratificari, Sall. Jug. 3. tibi hoc, Cic. fam. 1, 10. N. Aliis gratificari volunt, Cic. fin. 5, 15. But, probably, an accusative is understood.

Habito. A. Centum urbes habitabant, Æn. 3, 106. N. or Absol. Habitabant vallibus imis, Æn. 3, 110, i. e. they lived in. Duabus urbibus habitabat populus idem, Liv. 8, 22. But, perhaps, in these also, the sense is inhabit, do-

mos, or some such word, being understood.

Hiemo. N. Atrum defendens pisces hiemat mare, Hor. A. Decoquunt aquas; mox et illas hiemant, Plin. 19, 4. Hiemato lacu, Plin. 9.

Horreo. N. (us.) A. Horrere pauperiem, Hor. sat. 2, 5, 9. conspectum, Cic. Horrenda diluvies, Hor. car. 4, 14, 27. Nomen horrescunt, Apul. 6.

Increpo. N. (us.) A. Sonitum increpuit tuba, Æn. 9, 503. socios, Æn. 10, 830. Quæ in victoriam Sullanam increpabantur, Sall. ep. de rep. ord. 1, 5.

Inco, Ingredior. N. Intra munitionesingredi, Cæs. b. G. 5, 9. Ineunte ætate, adolescentiâ, &c. passim. A. Colles ingreditur, Ov. met. 14, 846. Taurus init cœlum, Ov. fast. 5, 617.

Inolesco. N. (us.) A. Inolevit nobis natura amorem nostri, Gell. 12, 5. In moribus inolescendis, Gell. 12, 1.

Insanio. N. (us.) A. Insanit amores, Prop. 2. Quam me stultitiam - - - insanire putas, Hor. So Bentley reads; others have quâ stultitiâ.

Irascor. N. (us.) A. (with an accusative of the thing) Istud dictum tibi irascor, Plaut. Merc. 4, 5. Nostram ne vicem irascaris, Liv. 34, 32.

Irrumpo. N. In castra irruperunt, Cæs. b. G. 4, 14. Milites oppidum irrumperent, Cas. b. G. 1. 27.

Juro, Adjuro. N. or Absol. (us.) A. (with an accusative of the thing sworn by) Stygias juravimus undas, Ov. met. 2. Jurare Jovem, Cic. fam. 7, 12. Aræ jurandæ, Hor. ep. 2, 1, 16. An accusative of the thing sworn to; Qui denegat et juravit morbum, Cic. Att. And with hoc id &c.: as. Hoc idem jurant reliqui, Cas. b. c. 3. Hæc adjurarent, Liv. 43, 16.

Laboro. N. (us.) A. Ad quid laboramus res Romanas, Cic. Att. arma tibi, Stat. Theb. 3, 279. Propter quæ hæc laborantur, Cic. fam. 3, 13. Vestes arte laboratæ, Virg.

Lacrymor, Lacrymor, N. (us.) A. Lacrymare casum alicujus, Nep. 7, 6, 4. Casum collacrymavit, Cic. pro Sext. Lacrymatæ cortice myrrhæ, Ov. fast. 1, 339.

Lapido. A. (us.) N. Reate imbri lapidavit, Liv. 43, 13. It is here used impersonally.

Latro. N. (us.) A. Latrent illum canes, Hor. epod. 5, 57. Hunchabentes negant latrari a canibus, *Plin*. 25, 10.

Luceo. N. (us.) A. Lucebis novænuptæfacem, Plaut. Cas.

Ludo. N. (us.) A. Ludere aleam, Suet. Aug. 70, 5. bella latronum, Mart. civem bonum, Cæl. ad Oic. 8, 9. Luditur alea pernox, Juv. 8, 10.

Maneo. N. or Absol. (us.) A. Manere aliquem, Liv. 10, 35. Manebat ætas negligentiam, Ter. Phorm. 4, 1. Ætas manenda, Lucr. 3, 1088.

Mano, Emano, Stillo. N. or Absol. (us.) A. Manat picem, Plin. lacrymas, Ov. met. 6, 312. Calor permanat argentum, Lucr. 1, 495. Emanare saniem, Plin. 23, 3. Stillabit ex oculis rorem, Hor. ar. poet. 429. Electra de ramis stillata, Ovid. met. 2, 364.

Maturo. N. or Absol. Maturantque celeriter, sicut morus, Plin. 16, 25. A. Maturate fugam, Æn. 1, 137. Maturatur opus, Justin. 2, 15, 7.

Mentior, N. or Absol. In virum bonum mentiri non cadit emolumenti sui causâ, Cic. off. 3, 20. A. Mentiri auspicium, Liv. 10, 40. colores, Virg. Mentitæ sortes, Val.

Fl. 3, 618.

Metuo, Timeo. A. Calamitatem metuo, Cic. Verr. 3. Et quæ sibi quisque timebat, En. 2. N. Syre tibi malè timui, Ter. Hei! metui a Chryside, Ter. And. 1, 1, 79. But here some accusative is certainly understood.

Moderor, N. Qui non moderabitur iræ, Hor. ep. 1, 2. 59. A. Moderari cantus numerosque, Cic. Tusc. 5, 104, c. 36.

Mœreo. N. Dolore alterius mœrere, Cic. fam. 4, 5. A. Filii mortem mæreret, Cic. Tusc. 1.

Muto. A. (us.) N. or Absol. Mortis metu mutabant, Sall. Jug. 28. Mores populi R. quantum mutaverint, Liv.

Nato. N. (us.) A. Natare aquas, Mart. 14, 196. Aquæ natantur, Ov. art. 1, 48.

Navigo. N. (us.) A. Navigare æquor, Æn. 1, 67. Enavigare Indum, Plin. 6, 17. Oceanus navigatus est, Plin. 2, 67. Enavigatus sinus, Plin. 9, 3. Unda omnibus enaviganda, Hor. od. 2, 14, 11.

Nitor. N. (us.) A. Alternos longa nitentem cuspide gressus,

Æn. 12, 386.

Obeo. A. Is obiit mortem, Ter. And. 1, 3, 18. diem supremum, Nep. Dion. Morte obitâ, Æn. 10, 641. N. Obiit morte, Suet. Aug. 4. morbo, Plin. 11, 37.

Obstrepo. N. Obstrepere laudi alicujus, Senec. Herc. fur. 1031. A. Avium vox obstrepit aures, Virg. Cul. 104.

Oleo, Redoleo. N. (us.) A. Ce-

ram et crocum olere, Cic. Olent illa supercilia malitiam, Cic. Redolet antiquitatem, Cic. de cl. orat. 21.

Palleo, N. (us.) A. Pallere colores, Prop. 1. Et scatentem belluis pontum mediasque fraudes palluit audax, Hor. od. 3. Fontis qui non expal-

luit haustus, Hor.

Palpo, Palpor. N. Observatote quam blandè mulieri palpabitur, Plaut. A. Quem munere palpat Carus, Juv. 1, 35. Virgineâ palpanda manu pectora, Ovid. met. 2, 867, al. plaudenda.

Pascor. N. Pascitur in vivis livor, Ovid. A. Pascuntur svl. vas, Georg. 3, 314. Artus de-

pascitur, Æn. 2.

Paveo, N. Et pavet pectus, Ov. met. 9, 581. A. Pavere pugnam, Lucan. 7. lupos, Hor. Pavescere prodigia, Sil.

Penetro. Absol. Tumultus e castris et in urbem penetrat, Liv. Se seems understood. A. Nihil tamen Tiberium magis penetravit, Tac. 5. Penetrant se in fugam, Plaut. Ut penitus nequeat penetrari, sc. India, Lucr. 2, 539.

Pereo, Depereo. N. (us.) A. Tres unam pereunt adolescentes mulierem, Plaut. Truc. Illum deperit impotente amore, Catull. Puppis pereunda est probè, Plaut. Epid. 1,

1, 70.

Pergo. N. (us.) A. Pergo præ-

terita, Cic. Att.

Perrepo, Perrepto. N. (us.) A. Tellurem genibus perrepere, Tibull. 1, 2, 87. Perreptavi usque omne oppidum, Ter. Ad. 4, 6, 3.

Persono. N. Cum domus cantu personaret, Cic. in Pis. 10. A. Personare aures vocibus, Cic. fam. ep. 6, 19, 6. regna,

Æn. 6, 417.

Persevero. N. (us.) A. Quatriduo perseverata est inedia, Justin. 12, 6, 15. Persevera diligentiam is quoted by Gesner from Symmachus, but such an accusative has no classical authority. Perseverare aliquid, Cic. pro Quinct. c. 24.

Pervolo, Pervolito. A. Pervolitat loca, En. 8, 24. Pervolet urbem, Juv. 6, 397. N. Per dissepta domorum saxea voces pervolitant, Lucr. 6, 952. Animus velociùs in hanc sedem pervolabit, Cic.

Somn. Scip. 21, 9.

Plaudo. N. (us.) A. plaudere fratrem, Stat. Silv. 5, 3, 140. choreas, Æn. 6. Explosit hoc genus divinationis vita communis, Cic. divin. c. 41. Histrio exploditur, Cic. Parad. 3, 2. Supplodo and Circumplaudo are active; but whether they are ever neuter, does not appear. Nemo pedem supplosit, Cic. de orat. Quàque ibis, manibus circumplaudere tuorum, Ovid.

Ploro. N. or Absol. Date puero panem, ne ploret, Quinct. Deplorare apud aliquem de miseriis, Cic. Verr. 3, 45. A. Juvenem raptum plorat, Hor. od. 4, 2, 22. Deplorare calamitates, Cic. Phil. 11, 6, c. 2. Quæ de altero deplorantur,

Cic. de orat. 2, 211.

Pluo. N. (us.) A. Hæc illa est tempestas mea - - - quam mihi amor et cupido in pectus perpluit meum, Plaut. Most. 1, 2, 30. Lacrymas depluit, Prop. 2. Et carnem pluit, Liv. 3, 10. Other MSS. have carne. That both constructions were in use, see Drakenborch ad Liv. 3, 10.

Prævenio. N. in the sense of to come before. A. in the sense of to prevent. Prævenire desiderium plebis, Liv. 8, 16. Miles præventam gloriam intelligit, Tac. hist. 1, 5, 2. Prandeo. N. (us) A. Si pran-

Prandeo. N. (us) A. Si pranderet olus, Hor. Luscinias soliti impenso prandere co-

emptas, Hor.

Propero, Appropero. N. (us.)
A. Properare arma alicui,
En. 12, 425. Hæc properantur, Juv. 3, 264. Intercisis venis, mortem approperavit, Tac. ann. 16, 14, 5.

Propinquo. N. (us.) A. Propinquare augurium, Æn. 10, 254. mortem, Sil. 2, 281.

Prorumpo, Perrumpo. A. A-tram prorumpit ad æthera nubem, Æn. 3, 572. Proruptum mare, Æn. 1, 246. Ut rates perrumperet, Cæs. b. c. 1, 26. N. Fluvio Tiberinus amæno - - in mare prorumpit, Æn. 7, 32. Perrumpere per aciem, Liv. 3, 70. in vestibulum, Liu. 3, 18.

Provoco. A. Crispinus me provocat, Hor. N. Provoco ad populum, Liv. 1. i. e. I ap-

peal.

Pulvero. A. (us.) N. Nolo hoc pulveret, Plaut. ap. Gell. 18,

12, *i. e.* be dusty.

Quadro N. Conjunctionem verborum numerosè cadere, et quadrare, et perfici volumus. Cic. orat. 3, 44. A. Quadrare acervum, Hor. ep. 1, 6, 35. Quadrandæ orationis industria, Cic. orat. c. 56. This word signifies both to make square, and to become square, or perfect.

Quiesco, Requiesco. N. (us.) A. Quiescent laudes tuas populi, Senec. Herc. Oct. 15. Quieta urbs, Æn. 12, 558. Et mutata suos requierunt flumina cursus, Virg. ecl. 8, 4. Requietus ager, Ovid. art. 2. 351. Requietis militibus, Sall.

Queror, Conqueror. N. Sæpe de luxuriâ questus sum, Sall. Cat. 52. A. Audivi Milonem queri injuriam meam, Cic. Att. 5, 8. Conqueri fortunam adversam decet, Cic.

Radio. N. (us.) A. Scuta sed et galeæ gemmis radientur et auro, Ov. Pont. 3, 4, 103.

Redundo. N. (us.) A. Redundat talia raucis faucibus Vulturnus, Stat. silv. 4, 3, 71. i.e. profert, loquitur. Redundatas flumine cogit aquas, Ovid. trist. 3, 10, 52. But these are not sufficient authority for redundo active.

Regno. N. (us.) A. Trans Lygios Gothones regnantur, Tac. Germ. 25, 4. Terra regnata Philippo, Ovid. Pont. 4, 15, 15. Albam regnandam, Æn. 6, 770. But these are not sufficient authority for regno active.

Resideo. N. (us.) A. Venter gutturque resident esuriales ferias, Plaut. Capt. 3, 1, 8. i. e. sedendo agunt. Denicales feriæ a nece appellatæ sunt, quia residentur mortui, Cic. de leg. 2, 22.

Respicio. A. (us.) N. Et quum Latinis studebimus literis, non respiciamus ad Græcas, Quinct.

2, 12.

Resulto. N. (us.) A. Saxa cautesque parilem sonum resulta-

rent, Apul. met. 5.

Rideo. N. (us.) A. Ridere aliquem, Cic. fum. 2, 9. portenta Thessala, Hor. Ridear, Ovid. Pont. 4, 12, 16.

Roro. N. (us.) A. Lacrymis

oculi rorantur obortis, Ovid. Her. 15, 97. Roratâ mane pruinâ, Ovid. fast. 3.

Ruo, Proruo, Corruo, Irruo, N. Quid si cœlum ruat, Ter. Insâ vi molis et iræ proruit, Val. Flac. 7, 600. Corruit in vulnus, Virg. A. Cæteros ruerem, Ter. Ad. Ruere cumulos arenæ, Virg. georg. 1. 105. Ruta cæsa— ap. J. Ctos et Cic. orat. 2, 55. Multa proruet integrum cum laude victorem, Hor. od. 4, 4, 66. Corruere divitias, Plant. Rud. 2,6,58, i.e. congregare Spicæ corruuntur in corbem, Varro. Vide ne ille huc intro se irruat, Ter, Ad. 4, 2, 11.

Rumpo. A. (us.) N. Cesso huc intro rumpere, Ter. Eun. 5,

6, 26.

Rutilo. N. (us.) A. Rutilare capillos cinere, Val. Max. 2, 1, 5. comam, Suet. Cal. 47. Promisse et rutilatæ comæ,

Liv. 38, 17.

Salto. N. (us.) A. Cheironomon Ledam molli saltante Bathyllo, Juv. 6, 63, Carmina nostra saltari scribis, Ovid. trist. 5. 7, 25. Poemata saltata, Ovid. trist. 2.

Satisfacio. N. (us.) A. (obsol.)

Donicum pecuniam satisfecerit, Cato r. r. c. 149. Satisfacto jurejurando, Gell. 7, 18. It is conjectured from this last, that the antients said satisfacere jusjurandum. Perizonius is of opinion, that, in such constructions there are two accusatives, of which one, satis, is governed by the verb, the other by uara, or quod ad, understood.

Sibilo, Exsibilo. N. [Serpens] sibilat ore, Æn. 11, 754. A. Populus me sibilat, Hor, Ver-

ba anguina exsibilat, Prudent. Peristeph. 5, 175. Histrio exsibilatur, Cic. Parad. 3, 2.

Sileo. N. (us.) A. Silere rem aliquam, Senec. Hipp. 876, Ea res siletur, Cic. pro Flac. c. 3.

Sitio. N. (us.) A. Sitire sanguinem, Cic. Phil. 5, 7. honores, Cic. Aquæ sitiuntur, Ovid.

fast. 1, 215.

Somnio. N. Nec mihi magis usquam videor somniare, Cic. de divin. 2, 142, c. 68. A. Me somnies, Ter. Eun. 1, 2, 114. Somniare ineptias, Colu. 1, 8.

Sono, Insono, Circumsono, Reboo. N. (us.) A. Sonat vitium fidelia, Pers. 3, 21. Alcyonum questus ad surdas tenui voce sonantur aquas, Albinov. eleg. 1, 108. Verberaque insonuit, Æn. 7, 451, where Servius notes pro verberibus insonuit aut per verbera.—Finitimis quamvis circumsoner armis, Ovid. Scopulique omnes ac lustra ferarum Pirenen reboant, Sil. 3, 439.

Specto. A. Spectat acervos, Horod. 2, 2, 24. N. Spectare in septentriones, Cas. b. G. 1, 1.

ad concordiam, Cic.

Spiro, Expiro, Suspiro, Respiro.
N. or Absol. Aræ spirant floribus, Stat. silv. 2, 2, 27.
Inter primam curationem expiravit, Liv. 2, 20. Ingemit, et tacito suspirat pectore, Ovid. ep. 21, 201. Respirâro, si te videro, Cic. Att. 2, 24. To some, at least, of these, an accusative is understood. A. Tetrum odorem spirare, Colu. 1, 6. deam, Ov. met. 3. Hominem tribunatum spirantem, Liv. 3, 46. Confixi animas expirant,

En. 11, 883. Suspirat amores, Tibull. 4. Eandemque [animam] a pulmonibus respiret et reddat, Cic. de nat. de. 2, 135.

Stupeo. N. (us.) A. Pars stupet donum, Æn. 2. Stupenda penetralia, Nazar. paneg.

Constant. c. 6.

Subsisto. N. (us.) A. Et postquam --- Romanum nec acies subsistere ullæ nec castra nec urbes poterant, Liv. 9, 31.

Sudo. N. (us.) A. Sudent electra myricæ. Virg. ecl. 8, 54.
Thura balsamaque sudantur,
Tac. Germ. 45, 9. In sudata
veste durandum, Quinct.

Sufficio. A. Ipse pater Danais animos viresque secundas sufficit, Æn. 2, 617. In ejus locum suffectus, Liv. 5, 31. N. Sufficere laboribus, Plin. jun. Nec sufficit umbo ictibus,

Æn. 9, 810.

Suppedito. N. Ea quæ suppeditant ad victum, Cic. off. 1, 4. Cui si vita suppeditavisset, Consul factus est, Cic. Perhaps an accusative is understood. A. Sicilia frumentum suppeditat, Cic. Ver. 2, 2. Fistulis aqua suppeditabatur templis, Cic. pro Rabir. perduell. c. ult.

Supero. A. (us.) Phæbum superare canendo, Virg. ecl. 5, 9. N. Et captæ superavimus urbi, Æn. 2, 643, i. e. outlived. Supero signifies not only to come over and to overcome, and is used for vincere, but to be over or remain, as equivalent to superesse or superstitem esse. In the former sense it governs the accusative, in the latter it takes the dative.

Surgo. N. (us.) A. (obsol.)

Lumbos surgite, Plant. Epidic. ult. Surrecto mucrone, Liv.

7, 10.

Suspicio. A. Et castra suspeximus, Cic. Tusc. 1, 63, c. 25.N. Suspicere in cœlum, Cic.

Somn. Scip. 1.

Taceo, Obticeo. N. (us.) A. Taceo te, Plant. Mil. multa,
Cic. Amor tacetur, Ovid. amor. 2, 18, 36. Et queritur nugas obticuisse meas,

Mart. 10, 17.

Tardo. A. (us.) N. An tardare et commorari te melius esset tibi, Cic. ad Brut. 18. Markland says that this is the only example of tardo being used intransitively in Cicero or in any other classical writer, except once retardando the gerund in a neuter sense in Cic. nat. d. 2, 20. It was common, he observes, in the decline of the language. is one of his arguments against the authenticity of the Ep. to Brutus. It is, at best, but a suspicious example.

Tempero. A. Temperat iras,
Æn. 1, 61. N. Usque mihi
temperavi. Cic. fam. ep. 10,
7. Quis temperet a lacrymis,

Æn. 2, 8.

Tendo.A.Iter ad naves tendebat Achates, Virg. N. Tendimus in Latium, Æn. 1, 205. But here iter, or a similar word, may be understood. Illic Æacides, illic tendebat Ulysses, Ov. Pen. Uly.i.e. encamped; and here perhaps tentorium is understood.

Tono, Intono. N. (us.) A. Tercentum tonat ore deos, Virg. Laudes tonas, Plin. præf. Cum hæc intonuisset, Liv. de Virginid. Minas intonare,

Ov. amor. 1, 7, 46.

Tremo. N. (us) A. Tremere varios casus, Senec. Troad. 262. Tremendi oculi, Ovid. met. 3, 577. Unde periculum fulgens contremuit domus Saturni veteris, Hor. Non contremiscamusinjurias, Sen. ep. 66.

Transgredior. A. Ut Alpes transgrederer, Cic. fam. 11, 20. Transgressus Danubium, Tac. ann. 2, 63, init. N. Inde in Latinam viam transgressus, Liv. 2, 39. Transgredior ad vos, Tac. hist. 4, 66, 4.

Transvolo, Transvolito. A. Transvolat in medio posita, Hor. N. Transvolat inde in partem alteram, Liv. 3, 63. Et clausa domorum transvolitant, Lucr. 1, 355.

Trepido. N. (us.) A. Actrepidant divina præsagia, Apul.

met. 6.

Triumpho. N. (us.) A. Terram triumphavit, Lactant. 6, 23. Triumphatae gentes, Virg. georg. 3, 33. Triumphatis dare jura Medis, Hor. od. 3, 3, 43. But notwithstanding these two examples, an accusative of the thing conquered is not found in any author truly classical.

Turbo, Conturbo. A. (us.) N. or Absol. Turbant trepida ostia Nili, Æn. 6,800, where Servius notes turbant pro turbantur. Indeed, where turbans seems to be used for turbatus, and turbo for turbor, there seems to be an ellipsis of some accusative. Conturbo, used absolutely, signifies to be distressed in circumstances, or to have one's affairs in confusion: thus, Pedo conturbat, Matho deficit, Juv. 7, 129, in which probably there is an ellipsis of rationes. Vagor. N. (us.) A. Terras vagari, Prop. 2, 28, 19.

Vaporo. A. Et templum thure vaporant, Æn. 11, 481. Vaporatas aras, Virg. Oculos vaporari præcipiunt, Plin. 28, 11. N. Aquæ vaporant et in ipso mari, Plin. 32, 2.

Veho, Inveho, Gesto, A. (us.) N. The participles vehens, invehens, gestans, are often used absolutely in the same sense as vectus and invectus: thus, Ei consuli pater proconsul obviam in equo vehens venit, Gell. 2, 2. Triton --natantibus invehens belluis. Cic. nat. d. 1, 28. Idem classi præfectus circumvehens Peloponnesum - - - classem eorum fugavit, Nep. Timoth. Lecticâ per urbem vehendi jus, Suet. Claud. 28. Simul gestanti, Suet. Domit. 12. It probably arises, from this manner of using veho, that its derivative vector signifies not only a carrier but a passenger.

Vergo. N.(us.) A. (in the sense of pouring) Vergere venena, Lu-

cret. 5, 1008. Frontique invergit vina sacerdos, Æn. 6, 244. Spumantes mero pateræ verguntur, Stat. Th. 6, 211.

Vescor. N. (us.) A. Ut infirmissimos suorum vescerentur, Tac. Agr. Qui absinthium vescuntur, Plin. 11.

Vigilo, Evigilo, Pervigilo. N. (us.) A. Vigilare noctes, Hor. sat. 1, 3, 17. Vigilatæ noctes, Ov. art. 1, 735. Noctes vigilantur, Ov. Med. Jas. (See Evigilo in List.) Pervigilare noctem, Cic. pro S. Rocc. c. 35. In multo nox est pervigilata mero, Ovid. fast. 6, 326.

Ululo. N. (us.) A. Ululârunt tristia Galli, Lucan. 1. Hecate triviis ululata, Æn. 4, 609.

Undo, Inundo. N. or Absol. Ad cœlum undabat vortex, Æn. 12, 673. Inundant sanguine fossæ, Æn. 10, 24. A. Quum tuus Æacides sanguine undabit campos, Stat. Achil. 1, 86. Sanguine Enna inundabitur, Liv. 24, 30.

Among the foregoing will be found several Neuter Verbs, which are rendered transitive, through the Preposition with which they are compounded:—of the same Description are the following.

Afflo. Afflat vittas anhelitus oris, Ovid. met. 5, 617. Afflata est tellus, Ovid. met. 6, 707.

Adeo. Adire aliquem, Virg. Æn. 3, 456. Adiri prætores non potuerunt, Cic. ad Q. Fr. 1, 2.

Anteeo. Anteire nives candore, En. 12, 84. Ne ab aliis anteirentur, Tac. hist. 2, 101,2.

Circumeo. Circumire hostem, Curt. 3, 8, 27. Se belli fluctibus circumiri maluit, Cic. Phil. 13, 9.

Circumsono. Circumsonat orbem Nereus, Ovid. met. 1, 187. Geticis circumsonorarmis, Ovid. trist. 5, 3, 11.

Circumsisto. Circumsistunt hostes impeditum, Cæs. b. G. 5, 43. Ne ab omnibus circumsisteretur, Cæs. b. G. 7, 43.

Circumsideo. Circumsidere urbem, Tac. ann. 3, 38. Cum

a se Cæcilius circumsederetur, (sedso) Cic. Att. 14, 9.

Circumstrepo. Circumstrepentibus vitam humanam tot minis, Senec. de vit. beat. c. 11. Vedius clamore seditiosorum circumstrepitur, Tac. hist. 2, 44, 3.

Circumvenio. Circumvenire aliquem, Sall. Cat. 58. Circumvenior judices, nisi subveni-

tis, Cic. Brut. c. 75.

Incubo. Incubare ova, Plin. 9. 10. Ova incubantur, Plin. 10, 54.

Perambulo. Perambulat artus frigus, Ovid. Her. 9, 135. Perambulatus Niphates, Sidon. car. 23, 93.

Percurro. Percurrere polum, Hor. car. 1, 28, 6. Questiones percursæ, Cic. de orat.

2, 32,

Pererro. Pererrare locum, Æn. 5, 441. Orbe pererrato, Ovid. met. 3, 6.

Permeo. Permeare orbem, Lucan. 2, 418. Permeato amne, Ammian. 24, 2, extr.

Pervado. Pervasit urbem fama. Liv. 2, 23. Pervasa urbe.

Ammian. 24, 2.

Prætereo. Præterit ira modum. Ovid. fast. 5, 304. Cum bonus vir suffragiis præteritur, Cic. Tusc. 5, 19.

Subeo. Subire pericula, Ovid. Her. 20, 175. Inimicitiæ subeantur, Cic. Verr. 5, 71.

Supersedeo. Supersedere operam, Gell. 2, 29. Istis supersessis, Apul. Florid. 18.

Transeo. Transire flumen, Cic. Att. 8, 12. Rhodanus vado transitur, Cæs, b. G. 1, 6, &c.

Some grammarians have denied the existence of neuter verbs; others have termed every verb neuter, which is used, as active verbs often are, without its regimen's being expressed: and hence, in a great measure, it arises, that we have been furnished with such ample lists of verbs used as active and neuter. It was this consideration which prevented me from transcribing, according to my original intention, Sanctius's list De Verbis falso neutris, along with Vossius's two lists. From the definitions which have been given of active and neuter verbs, and from some remarks which have been made in regard to their construction, under Rules XXVIII. and XXXIII., the learner will have little difficulty to ascertain, when he considers the nature and essential signification of a verb, whether it be really active, or apparently neuter; and, although he may find, moveo, servo, ago, and many similar verbs, characterized, not only as active, which they unquestionably are, but as neuter also, because there are such constructions as Postquam ille Canusio moverat—Cic. Solus Sannio servat domi—Ter. Agere inter homines desiit—Tac., yet, let him attend to the nature of the subject, and his own mind will suggest the elliptical words to which the energy of these words passes, and he will easily perceive to what description of verbs they really belong. Nor, on the other hand, are those verbs to be considered as real active verbs, which admit after them an accusative of the same, or of a cognate signification; nor such as are followed only by the accusatives hoc, id, guod, nihil, aliquid, &c. These have been generally omitted in the preceding list. The learner should likewise distinguish between real neuter verbs, and such active verbs as are often used in an absolute manner, which happens, especially, when the sense requires only the mere energy of the verb to be, generally, expressed, without any application of it to a specified object, as, when speaking of reading and writing, generally, we say Nec legit, nec scribit. Sometimes part of the sentence supplies the place of an accusative; sometimes, also, the reciprocal se, the pronoun me, or some similar word, is omitted after an active verb², when, from the sense or the nature of the action, its insertion is altogether unnecessary: as, Tum prora avertit -Virg. Tresque vibrant linguæ-Ovid. The active verb incipio has been denominated neuter, because we may say Ver incipit, in the same way as Virgil says Vix prima inceperat æstas, and, in the same manner, in English "The spring begins," or "The summer had begun." But, I have little doubt, that, in such instances, se is understood. In speaking of this phraseology, an intelligent writer on the Syntax of the Latin verb, remarks, that in the sentence "The moon turns, round its axis," the verb turn is neuter, and adds, "that he should make it a question, which was the more antient kind, the verb active, or the verb neuter." Such verbs I consider as active, or, as some have named them, reflective. Moon and spring, though inanimate subjects, undergo a sort of personification, and are so generally considered to be vested with a self-influencing power, that it is unnecessary to particularize themselves as the objects upon which that power is exerted. And, although the

² Indeed, I will not assert that some of the verbs in the preceding list, which have been exemplified as neuter, may not, even when they appear to be thus used, be still in reality active, some pronoun, or other word, being un-

derstood as their regimen.

Thus Cæsar says, in his laconic epistle, Veni, vidi, vici, in which two active verbs follow a neuter verb, with no object or regimen expressed to them. The reason is obvious.—Cæsar did not wish to say whom he conquered, but to intimate that wherever he came, conquest, generally, was the immediate consequence. But such verbs are not, for this use of them, to be characterized as neuter, since it is in the very nature of things, that if there be a person who sees or conquers, there must be objects which he sees or conquers. A verb is not neuter, because it may not be followed by an object, but because it generally admits none.

agent and object be one and the same, and although, consequently, the action does not, in a strict sense, pass from the agent, yet it is evident that the subject is spoken of in two distinct characters, as agent, and recipient of action; and, therefore, the verb has precisely the same import and nature which it would universally be allowed to possess, were they individually different and distinct. The same kind of phraseology obtains in languages derived from the Latin, with this difference, however, that the reciprocal is not so frequently omitted in them. Thus, in French, they say "Les jours commencent à s' alonger," the days begin to lengthen (themselves). In Spanish, "Se acaba la rina," the quarrel ends (itself). And in both, "Le soleil se couche," "Se pone' el sol," the sun sets (itself or himself). All such verbs, in English, as well as in Latin, have been denominated, by some, neuter verbs, as may be seen, by referring to Dr. Johnson's English Dictionary, passim, and to the numerous lists made by Latin grammarians. Indeed, were I inclined to hazard a conjecture, it would be the reverse of the opinion which seems to be sanctioned by the ingenious writer alluded to above, and I should say, that, the substantive verb, perhaps, excepted, active verbs were the first invented, and that most verbs, if not all, were, very probably, originally active, that is, admitted after them an objective or accusative case of some kind or other. The Spaniards, whose language, as has been just mentioned, is derived from the Latin, construe, as active, verbs which we consider as neuter or intransitive: thus they say "Tu te duermes," thou fallest (thee) asleep. "Tu te paseas," thou walkest (thee). "Tu te ibas," thou wast going (thee) away. The French, too, say "Il s' endort," he sleeps. "Il se promene," he walks. I am aware, however, that, although some of these verbs are interpreted neuterly, their original, etymological signification, may, perhaps, have been active. Why the accusative is usually omitted, after such verbs, in

¹ To express such actions seems to have been the original character of the Greek middle voice. When an action had a double relation to the same subject or object, that is, when the same person was both active and passive, this voice was generally used. But in other languages, the verb retains its active form, se, himself, or a similar word, expressed or understood, denoting the subject of the verb, in its passive character, as acted upon.

² The pronoun is often omitted after the Latin pono: as, Qu'un renti posu're—Virg. Æm. 7, 27. Jum venti ponent—Ov. Did. Thus used, this seems a sea term. Indeed technical phrases are generally elliptical; thus solvo is used absolutely, for to set sail, or weigh anchor, as in Nos co die canati solvinos—Cie, fam. ep. 16. 9. Names et sup rose portu solverunt—Cays. B. G. 29, the accusative anchorat being, probably, understeed.

Latin, and in some other languages, it would not be difficult to determine; perspicuity does not require its continuance; and philologists are well acquainted with the tendency to abbreviation, so easily discoverable in most lan-

guages.

In the foregoing list, the use of a passive voice is admitted as a proof of the active signification of verbs in o, except with respect to passive impersonals, such as curritur, favetur, &c. But a perfect participle must not be deemed unquestionable evidence of the existence of a passive voice, for we find Ventum est, standum, pugnatum est, &c. although there are no such words as venior, stor, pugnor. The passive voice of verbs usually neuter is very uncertain; and even, although there be authority for the third person, the other persons are not, on that account, allowable.

Verbs which vary their Construction according to their Sense.

Accedo tibi, I assent.

Accedo ad te, I come or go to

Huc accedebat, to this was ad-

Æmulor tibi, I envy you.

Æmulor te, *I imitate you*. Animadverto aliquid, *I observe*

a thing.

Animadverto in aliquem, I punish one.

Ausculto tibi, I obey you.

Ausculto te, I hear you. Caveo tibi, I take care of you,

or for you, as my friend.

Caveo te, I am on my guard

against you, avoid you, as my foe.

Cavere de re aliqua, to give caution or security concerning.

Cedere alicui, to give place to, to comply with one.

Cedere suo jure, to yield or give up his right.

Consulo tibi, I consult your in-

terest 2.
Consulo in te, I am contriving

for or against you.

Consulo te, I consult you, ask advice.

Consulo boni, I take in good part.

² Consulo tibi never denotes, (unless among writers of inferior authority,) I give you advice. In this sense, suadco tibi, or auctor sum tibi are usually em-

ployed.

¹ Cavere aliquid alicui—Plaut. To watch over the preservation of any one, that no harm may happen to him. Obsidibus de pecunià cavere—Cæs. To give security for the money, by hostages. Pecuniam alicui cavere; i. e. To give security for its payment. Obsidibus inter se cavere—Cæs. To consult their security by mutual hostages. Mihi tecum cavendum est—Plaut. i. e. There must be a proper surety in this suit which I have with you. Nisi prius a te cavero—Cic. Unless I shall first get security from you.

Convenit hoc mihi, this suits me.

Convenit mihi cum illo, I agree with him.

Conveniam hominem, I will meet, or accost, the man.

Cupio tibi, I favour you.

Cupio aliquid, I desire something.

Deficit mihi, it is wanting to me. Deficit me, it forsakes or leaves me.

Deficere ab aliquo, to revolt. Detrahere aliqui, to detract from,

backbite, depreciate.

Detrahere aliquem, to lower, to take one down (in reference to place).

Do tibi literas, I give you a letter (not for yourself).

Do ad te literas ', I give a letter for you, or I write to you. Fænero or fæneror tibi, I lend

out to you at usury.

Fæneror abs te, I borrow from you at usury or interest.

Horrere alicui, (Plin.) to shudder for one.

Horrere aliquem, to be much afraid of one as an enemy.

Imponere alicui, to deceive one, put a trick upon one.

Imponere aliquid alicui, to put one thing upon another; or, to lay any thing as a burden upon any one.

Manere, to tarry, stay, or abide. (Absolute.)

Manere aliquem, to wait for one, or expect one.

Metuo tibi, I am afraid for you, anxious about you, as my friend. Metuo te, or a te, I dread you, or fear you, as my foe.

Peto aliquid alicui, I ask something for (to be given to) some one.

Peto abs te, I ask of or from you.

Peto pænas de aliquo, I inflict punishment upon one.

Peto aliquem gladiô, I strike or attack one with a sword.

Peto locum, I go to, or direct my steps to, a place.

Prære alicui, (literally) to go before one; (figuratively) to excel, (seldom.)

Præire verba, to speak first what may afterwards be rehearsed

by another.

Præstare alicui silentium, benevolentiam, to afford silence, show kindness.

Præstare aliis or alios virtute, to excel others in virtue or courage.

Præstare se virum, to show or prove himself a man.

Præstare culpam or damnum, to take on himself the blame or loss,

Præstabo eum facturum, I will engage that he shall perform.

Prospicio, provideo, tuæ saluti, I provide for, take care of, your safety.

Prospicio, provideo periculum, I foresee danger.

Recipio tibi, I promise you.

Thus also, Recipio in me, I undertake.

Recipio me in locum, I betake myself to a place.

Refero tibi, I relate to you.

¹ Thus, Do servo literas ad te, I give your servant a letter for you. Dare fidem denotes to give a pledge, assurance, or solemn promise. In one or two instances, unworthy of imitation, the phrase is used for fidem afferre, to add credibility to a thing; but it is never employed, by any classical writer, for fidem habere, or credere, to give credit, or believe. Dare panas denotes to suffer, not to inflict, punishment. Dare verba alieui, to impose on, or deceive.

Refero ad senatum, I lay before the senate (for discussion).

Referre aliquem, to resemble

Renuncio muneri, hospitio, to renounce or refuse a present, or act of kindness.

Renuncio consulem, I declare, proclaim, or announce as con-

Solvo tibi aliquid, I pay you something.

Solvo aliquem 1, to discharge or liberate one.

Sufficere alicui, to be sufficient for one, to satisfy.

Sufficere alicui arma, to furnish or supply one with arms.

Sufficere aliquem, to choose or put one into the place of another.

Temperare linguæ, manibus;

to restrain, or keep within bounds, the tongue or hands.

Temperare cædibus, or à cædibus, to abstain or refrain from murders.

Temperare orbem, vires, ratem, to govern the world; to moderate strength, might or power; to regulate or direct a ship.

Timeo tibi, I am afraid for you

as my friend.

Timeo te, I fear you as an encmy. (Same as Metuo²). Vacare rei alicui, in, or ad ali-

Vacare rei alicui, in, or ad aliquam rem, to study or apply to a thing.

Vacare ab officio, to be exempt from, or to leave off, business. Vacare culpâ, to be without fault.

Vacat mihi, I am at leisure.

Verbs Deponent, which use the voice in o, in the same sense.

[The following Lists are taken from Vossius de Analogiâ, lib. 3, to which work the learner is referred for the examples.]

Adulo for Adulor, Attius, Lucr., &c. Alterco for Altercor, Pacuv., Ter. Assentio and Assentior are both used, according to Gell., Non., and Diomed. Amplecto for Amplector, and Amplexo for Amplexor, Q. Claud., Cic., Attius. Aucupo for Aucupor, Titin., Plaut.,

¹ Solvere obsidionem urbis, et urbem obsidione—Liv. To raise a siege. Solvere fudera—Virg. To break a league. Solvere fidem—Ter. is not, as interpreted by Ainsworth, Stephanus, and Turner in his Exercises, to break a promise; but, according to Ruddiman, to discharge, fulfil, or perform a promise, in which sense, he says, Pliny uses Fidem exsolvere, and Suetonius Fidem liberare. This last is also used by Cicero in the same sense. But solvere fidem—Cic. is rendered, in Pasini's Ital. Diet. by manear di parola, to fail in his word, or break his promise.—Abstractly considered, the phrase appears to me to denote merely to get rid of a promise or obligation, without any express reference to the mode, either as honourable or dishonourable.

² Formido mihi—Plaut. I am afraid for myself, that is, lest some harm befall me. Formidat auro—Plaut. He is afraid for the gold, that is, lest it should be stolen. Formidare alicujus iracundiam, aliquem, and ab alique, that

is, To dread his passion, or him, are attributed to Cicero.

Pacuv., &c. Auguro for Auguror, Att., Enn., Virg., &c. Auspico for Auspicor, according to Priscian, Cato, Nævius. Auxilio for Auxi-

lior, Gracchus.

Cachinno, Lucr. Cachinnor, Cic. Cohorto for Cohortor, Quadrigarius. Comito for Comitor, Ovid. Commento for Commentor, according to Priscian. Commisereo, Commiseresco. See Miseret. Complecto for Complector, Pompon. Congredio for Congredior, Plaut. And Progredio for Progredior, Novius. Consolo for Consolor, Varr. Contemplo for Contemplor, Att., Næv., Enn., &c. Convivo for Convivor, Enn., Pompon. Crimino for Criminor, Enn. Cuncto for Cunctor, Att., Enn.

Demolio for Demolior, Alfenus. Delucto. See Lucto. Digno for Dignor, Pacuv., Attius. Ejulo for Ejulor, according to

Priscian. Expergisco, Pompon. Exsecro for Exsecror, Afranius.

Frustro for Frustror, Pompon., Plaut., Cæs. Frutico, Colum, Plaut. Fruticor, Cic. Horto for Hortor, according to

Priscian.

Imito for Imitor, Liv. trag., Varr. Impertio and Impertior, Cic. Insidio for Insidior,

Callistratus.

Jurgo for Jurgor, Lex 12 tab. Lachrymo, Ter., Ov. Lachrymor, Cic. Læto for Lætor, according to Prise. Largio for Largior, Sall., Lucil., Cato. Lucto for Luctor, and Luctito for Luctitor, according to Priscian, Ennius. Luditico, l'laut. Ludificor, Plaut, Ter., Cic., Liv. Luxurio, Tubero, Virg. Luxu-

rior, Colum., Plin.

Medico, Virg. Medicor is used both actively and passively. Mereo for Mereor, Plaut., Turpil., &c. Thus also Promereo, Plaut. Minito for Minitor, Næv., Plaut. Miro for Miror, Varr. Pompon. Misero for Miseror, Attius. So Misereo and Misereor, whence Miseret and Miseretur. So also Miseresco, Virg., and Commiseresco, Enn. Modero for Moderor, Att., Pacuv., Plaut, Ulpian., and according to some MSS., Sallust. Molio for Molior, according to Priscian. And Demolio, Varr., Næv. Moro for Moror, Nævius. Munero for Muneror, Turpil. Mutuo for Mutuor (to borrow), Cæcilius.

Obsono and Obsonor, active, according to Priscian. Opino for Opinor, Plaut., Pacuv., Enn., Cæcil. Opitulo, Liv. trag. Osculo, Titin.

Pacisco, Næv. Palpo, Juv. Palpor, Lucil., &c. So Expalpor, Plaut, Partio for Partior, Lucil., Plaut., Att., Enn. So Impertio for Impertior. Patio for Patior, Næv. Perconto for Percontor, Novius, Næv. Polliceo for Polliceor, Varr. Populo for Populor, Plaut., Cæeil., Enn., &c. Prælio for Prælior, Enn. Præstolo for Præstolor, Turpil., Liv. trag. Proficisco, Turpil. Progredio. See Congredio. Promereo. See Mereo.

Recordo, Quadrig. Refrago for Refragor, according to Nonius, Suffrago for Suffragor, Sisenna. Reminisco. Rufus, Sanct. August. Reverto for Revertor, Pomponius. This is common in classical writers. Rhetorico for Rhetoricor, Novius. Rixo for Rixor, Varr. Rumino, Virg.

Scruto for Scrutor; Perscruto for Perscrutor, according to Nonius, Plaut. Sortio for Sortior, Enn. Stipulo, Gloss. Cyrill. Suavio for Suavior, Pompon., Nov. Suffrago. See Refrago.

Testo for Testor, according to Priscian. Tuto for Tutor, Plaut., Næv., &c.

Vago for Vagor, Plaut., Seren., Prudent., &c. Velifico, Plin., Propert. Juvenal has velificatus Athos passively. But Cicero uses Velificor as a deponent. Venero for Veneror, Plaut. Vocifero for Vociferor, San. Bonifac.

Verbs Passive used as Deponents.

There are some verbs passive (having a regular active voice) which are used, or were antiently used, as deponents, *i. e.* in an active signification.

Affector for Affecto. Affectatus est regnum, Varro.

Bellor for Bello. Pictis bellan tur Amazones armis, Virg.

Censeor for Censeo. Estinter comites Martia censa suos, Ovid.

Communicor for Communico. Cum quibus spem communicati sint, Liv.

Copulor for Copulo, according to Prisc. and Non. Adeunt, consistunt, copulantur dexteras, Plaut.

Erumpor for Erumpo. Vis exagitata for às erumpitur, Lucr.

Fabricor for Fabrico, Capitolii fastigium --- necessitas ipsa fabricata est, Cic.

Feneror for Fenero, Gell.

Fluctuor for Fluctuo, Fluctuatus animo fuerat, Liv.

Juratus sum for Juravi. Judici demonstrandum est, quid juratus sit, Cic.

Multor for Multo. Rebellantes
--- graviore multatus est pænå, Suet.

Muneror te for Munero, according to Gell. and Diomed. So Remuneror for Remunero. Murmuror for Murmuro, Apul. Nutrior for Nutrio. Hoc pinguem et placitam paci nutritor olivam, Virg.

Nutricor for Nutrico. Mundus omnia nutricatur, Cic.

Objurgor for Objurgo. Curionem objurgatus, Cœl ad Cic. Peragror. Peragratus est regi-

onem. Vellei.

Perlinor for Perlino. Ab imis unguibus sese totam ad usque summos capillos perlita, Apul. But neither this instance, nor that of copulor above, is esteemed sufficient proof.

Pigneror for Pignero, Gell. and Non.

Prævertor for Præverto, Plaut, Liv., Curt., Tac., Apul, Virg. But only the præterperfect active, præverti, is used, there being no præversus sum.

Punior for Punio, Cic. in three places.

Quiritor, Varr. Quirito, Plin., Quinct.

Ruminor, Varr., Liv. Andron. Rumino, Virg.

Sacrificor for Sacrifico, Varr.

Spector for Specto. Spectatus

est suem, Varr.

Significor for Significo, according to Gellius. To these may be added, Adjutor, Convertor, Emungor, Excalceor, Fatiscor, Focillor, Fruticor, Gliscor, Ignescor, Labascor, Ludificor, Manducor, Commanducor, Commurmuror, Palpor and Expalpor, Præsagior, Spolior, Urinor, all which Nonius confirms by antient authorities.

Verbs Common, and such as were formerly Common.

It may be questioned whether any of these were used passively in the *ordinary* language of the classical age.

Abominatus (passive.) Liv., Hor.

Adipiscor (passive.) Boëth., Justinian., Fab. Max., &c.

Adminiculor. Adminiculati (passive.) Varr.

Admiror (to be admired.) Ca-

nutius.
Adorior. Adortos (attacked.)

Aurel.
Adular. Adulati erant (then

Adulor. Adulati erant (they were flattered.) Cassius.

Aggredior (passive.) Cicero.
Aggressus (undertaken.) Ter.
Maur.

Amplector (to be embraced, Petron., Lucil.

Antestor (passive.) Liv.

Arbitror (passive.) Cel., Gell. Architector. Architectata (built.)

Nep.

Argumentor. Argumentata πιςωθέντα. Aufusius ap. Prisc. But, perhaps, he wrote A. Furius.

Aspernor (to be despised.) Cic. Assector (to be followed.) Enn., Alpheus philol.

Auguror (to be foretold.) Luc. Cæs. Virgil uses the active auguro, to foretell; and Cicero, auguror, in the same sense as a deponent.

Auxilior. Auxiliatus (assisted.)
Lucil.

Blandior. Blanditus πολακευθείς. Verrius.

Calumnior (to be blamed.) Staverius de proportione.

Carnificor (to be tortured.) Sisenna,

Cavillor. Cavillatus, (teased.)
Appul.

Cohortor. See Hortor.

Comitor(passive.) Justin., Ovid., Virg.

Commentor. Commentus πεπλασμένος. Appius Cæcus.

Complector (passive.) Virg., Cic., Scævola.

Confiteor (passive), according to Priscian. *Confessus* (passive.) Optatus Afer.

Consequor, Consector, (to be followed.) Orbilius, Varr., and Laverius.

Consolor (passive.) Quint. Metell. Numid., and Asinius Pollio.

Conspicor (to be seen.) Plaut., Varr., Sall.

Contestor (passive.) Contestatur συμμαρτυρεῖται. P. Aufidius.

Criminor (passive.) Cic., Appul., and Boëth.

Demolior, Immolior (passive.) Curio pater, Liv.

Delargior, (passive.) C. Gracchus.

Depeculor (to be plundered.) Lucius Cœlius. Despicor (to be despised.) Qu.

Pompeius.

Detestor (to be hated.) Apul. Apol. Detestata (hated.) Hor.

Dignor (to be thought worthy.)
Cic. and Gell. Dignate (passive.) Virg.

Dilargior. See Largior.

Dominor (to be ruled.) Nigidius Figulus, poet. vet. ap. Cic.

Ementior (passive.) Ementita εψευσμένα. C. Memnius. Ementitis (falsified.) Cic.

Enitor. Enixum puerum (born.) Sulpic. Severus.

Exsector. Executi ματαραθέντες. Cato.

Exhortor. See Hortor.

Exorior. Res - - a raro initio exorsæ, i. e. initæ. Visellius. Here it may be called a verb neuter deponent.

Experior (passive.) Experienda (to be tried.) P. Nigid. Experta (tried.) Cic., Attius, and Asin. Expertas (tried.) Statius.

Exsequor (passive.) Ulpian. and Emporius rhetor.

Fari (to be pronounced.) Sueton.

Fateor (to be confessed.) Cic. Frustror (to be disappointed.) Venestella. Frustratus ματαιωθείς, Laverius.

Furor. Furatis (being stolen.)
Appulcius.

Hortor (passive.) Gell., and Tac. Adhortati (exhorted) Cassius. Cohortatum (encouraged.) Marc. Cato. Exhortatus. Cic. Senec. al. exoratus. Exhortato. Ausonius.

Jaculor. Jaculatus (struck with on arrow.) Victor Uticensis.

Immelior. See Melior.

Interpretor (passive.) Paull, juriscent Hierony. Augustin.

Interpretata (interpreted.) Cicco.

Largior (passive.) Dilargitis (being given away.) Sall.

Loqui (passive.) Cœlius.

Machinor. Machinata (contrived.) Sall.

Meditor (passive.) Minutius Felix. Meditata μεμελετημένα. Ter., Cic., Ovid., Gell. Emeditatos. Appul.

Metior (to be measured.) Ar-

nob

Metor (passive.) Metata & metato. Hor.

Moderor. Moderata (passive.) Epigr. vet.

Modulor (passive.) Modulata (modulated.) Gell.

Molior (to be contrived.) Appul.
So Immolior. Immolium.
Liv.

Nanciscor. Nacta (gotten.) Hyginus, Appul.

Obliviscor (passive.) Scholiast.
Juvenalis. Oblita (forgotten.) Virg. and Boëth.

Ordior. Orsa (begun.) Colum. Ordita. Diomedes.

Osculor, usually set down, wants authority.

Paciscor. Pacta erat (was promised.) Tac.

Percontor (to be asked.) Percontatum pretium. Appul.

Polliceor (passive.) Metellus Numidicus.

Populor (to be plundered.) Populati, populatam. Cic. But populo is used, whence populatus is regularly passive.

Potior. with a gen. case (to be possessed by.) Plaut., Ter., & c.

Precor. Precandus (to be prayed to.) Auson. Ara precanda, Prudent.

Queror (passive,) according to Priscian.

Remorer(passive,) according to Hegesippus.

Reor (passive,) according to Priscian.

Sector (to be followed.) Varro. So Consector.

Solor (passive,) according to Priscian. See Consolor.

Stipulor (passive.) Sueton., Liv., and Plaut. Stipulor (active.) Juvenal. Instipulor (passive.) Plaut. Active. Plaut.

Testor. Τestata μαρτυρηθέντα. Cic.

Tueor and Tutor (passive.)

Vador (passive,) according to Priscian. Velificor (passive.) Velificatus Athos, Juven.

Veneror (passive.) Cæsar Germanicus, Virg. Hor.

Venor (active and passive,) according to Priscian.

Vereor (passive.) Afranius. Ulciscor (passive.) Sall. and Porc. Latro. *Ultus.* Valer.

Flaccus.
Vociferor (active and passive,)
according to Priscian.

Utor (passive.) Novius. So also Abutor. Varro and Q. Hortensius.

These last three lists might have been, perhaps, without impropriety, omitted, since it is evident that they are compiled, chiefly from authors who wrote either before or after the times of classical Latinity. I shall conclude with an enumeration of certain participles which have something peculiar in their nature.

PARTICIPLES.

The following perfect participles come from neuter verbs, and

are used in a passive sense.

Erratus, festinatus, juratus, laboratus, vigilatus, certatus, cessatus, clamatus, conclamatus, ovatus, sudutus, triumphatus, ululatus: as, Errata littora-Virg. Festinati honores-Lucan. Arte laboratæ vestes-Virg. Vigilatæ noctes-Ovid. &c. Some perfect participles, coming from neuter verbs, are used in a sense which is either neuter, or apparently active: as, Adultus, coalitus, concretus, conflagratus, deflagratus, conspiratus, dolitus, defectus, emersus, exitus, exoletus, interitus, juratus (mentioned also before), obsoletus, obitus, occasus, penetratus, placitus, complacitus, præteritus, rebellatus, redundatus, requietus, senectus, suetus, assuetus, consuctus, titubatus: as, Adulta virgo-Liv. i. e. qua adolevit. Emersus e cæno-Cic. i. e. qui emersit. Cicero and others use juratus for qui juravit: thus also, actively, Juratus est mihi -Plaut. for juravit mihi, and, passively, Quod juratum est—Cic. &c. To the above-mentioned may be added the following, having an active signification; Cautus, circumspectus, consideratus, desperatus, effusus, profusus, tacitus, consultus, promptus, argutus, disertus, notus (qui novit), ignotus, (qui ignorat); also fluxus, falsus, scitus, whence inscitus, which have assumed the nature of adjectives.

Lastly, there are some participles in ns which signify passively;

such as vehens for qui vehitur; vertens for qui vertitur; volvens for qui volvitur: as, Quadrigis vehens—Cic. for vectus. Ora vides Hecates in tres vertentia partes—Ovid. i. e. versa, al. vergentia. Annus vertens—Cic. Volventibus annis—Virg. i. e. dum volvuntur. But to these, and to others, formed from verbs thus used, it is probable, as has been already stated, that the objective case of a pronoun is understood.

There are certain words compounded with in, which have either an affirmative or a negative signification, in which latter sense they must be considered as participials; as indictus, invocatus, immutatus, &c. Many, by being divested of their time, or by a change in their construction, become nouns; as sapiens,

doctus, adolescens, animans, abditus, patiens, amans, &c.

OF THE ARRANGEMENT OR POSITION OF WORDS IN A SENTENCE.

THE English is an analogous language, in which the words of a sentence are generally arranged according to the order of time. The nominative, or the subject of the action, appears first; then the action with its several modifications or accessary circumstances; and, lastly, the object to which it has a reference. This is the common order of construction. The Latin, on the contrary, is a transpositive language, in which the order of the words is very arbitrary, depending, in a great degree, upon the taste or fancy of the composer, or some particular purpose which he may have in view, sometimes the object, sometimes the action, and sometimes the modification of the action, being made to precede or follow the other parts. Thus, by its having greater variety of inflexions to express different relations, we can, without producing ambiguity, say Alexander vicit Darium, Darium vicit Alexander, Alexander Darium vicit, or Darium Alexander vicit, for "Alexander conquered Darius." This variety of arrangement in Latin gives it an advantage over the English, not only in energy and vivacity of expression, but often also in harmony and perspicuity. It is true, that, in English, a similar inversion of words is sometimes admitted; as, "Him the Eternal hurl'd"—Milton; "Silver and gold have I none"

¹ Volens seems sometimes to have a passive signification, denoting what is willed, welcome, or acceptable: as, Volentia fuere plebi have et talia—Tac. Volentia de ambobus acceperant—Sall.

—Acts iii. 6; but this occurs chiefly in poetry, or in impassioned language.—While, however, no certain rules can be given for the order of Latin words, which are applicable to every instance, it may be observed, that, in general,

1st. The word governed is placed before the word which

governs it:

2dly. The word agreeing is placed after the word with which it agrees.

To these two leading principles shall be subjoined a few particular rules and notes.

RULE I. The adjective or participle is, perhaps, most commonly placed after the substantive with which it agrees: as, Pulverem majorem videri—Cæs. Sabin flumen ab castris suis abesse—Cæs. Ad exercitum transportandum—Cæs.

Note 1. When the adjective is a short word, and the substantive a long one; or to avoid the *hiatus* occasioned by the concurrence of vowels, the adjective is frequently placed first; as $H\alpha$ disciplina, has causas, ea tempestas, innuba puella.

Note 2. The following adjectives, primus, medius, ultimus, extremus, infimus, imus, summus, supremus, reliquus, cæterus, when joined to a noun, to denote pars prima, media, &c., are generally placed before their substantives: as Prima fabula—Ter. Media nox—Cæs. Reliqua Ægyptus—Cic.

Note 3. When the substantive, with which the adjective agrees, has a genitive depending on it, the adjective is generally placed first: as, *Ulla* officii precepta—Cic. in which the substantive on

which the genitive depends is placed last.

Note 4. When the substantive, with which the adjective agrees, is a genitive governed by another substantive, then also the adjective may be placed first: as, *Tantularum rerum occupationes*—Cæs.

Note 5. The adjective is frequently placed first, merely to gra-

tify the ear; as Bonus puer, magna parte, celer equus.

Note 6. A preposition or other word, is frequently put between the substantive and adjective; as, Tota in urbe, Quem in locum, Rem verò publicam amisimus, in which last a compounded word is divided by the intervention of verò.

Rule II. The finite verb is usually placed after its nominative, several words often intervening: as, Neque ulla nostris facultas aut administrandi, aut auxiliandi dabatur—Cæs.

¹ A little attention to these two leading principles, with the following rules, and to the usual order of the English language, will readily suggest what have been named the rules of construing or analysis, that is, the rules for reducing, previously to translation, the Latin into the English order.

- Note 1. In short sentences, or to contribute to harmony and emphasis, the nominative is often put after the verb: as, At sectabantur multi—Cic. Quem ad finem sese effrænata jactabit audacia?—Cic. Stat sua cuique dies—Virg. Manct alta mente repostum judicium Paridis—Virg. It may be observed that, in the two preceding examples, the action of the verb is a principal object of attention, which seems, on that account, placed first; and that the fatal day, and the fatal decision, are likewise so placed as to make a strong and a lasting impression.
- Note 2. The nominative is put after the verb, when it is the antecedent to a relative that cannot properly come before that verb, nor yet be separated from its antecedent by the intervention of other words: as, Militiur ad cos, colloquendi causâ, C. Arpinius eques Romanus, et Q. Junius ex Hispaniâ quidam, qui jam antè, missu Cæsaris, ad Ambiorigem ventitare consueverat—Cæs. Erat in Carnutibus summo loco natus Tasgetius, cujus majores in suâ civitate regnum obtinuerant—Cæs.
- RULE III. The relative is commonly placed after, and as near as possible to, its antecedent: as, Neque conditiones accipiendas arbitrabatur ab *iis*, qui, per dolum petitâ pace, ultro bellum intulissent—Cas.
- Note 1. It sometimes happens that the real antecedent is omitted, in which case the substantive is subjoined to the relative, which then agrees with it in case: as, Populo ut placerent quas fecisset fabulas—Ter. i. c. Populo ut fabulæ placerent, quas [fabulas] fecisset.
- Note 2. To prevent ambiguity, the relative and its clause are sometimes placed first: as, Hæc qui faciat, non ego eum cum summis viris comparo, sed simillimum deo judico—Cic. Had the relative clause been placed after eum, to which it refers, it would have occasioned too great a separation between the antecedent and the terms of honour intended to be associated with it. Had it been placed after comparo, it would have divided the terms of honour. And had it been placed after judico, ambiguity would have been produced, since either eum or deo might have been taken for the antecedent.
- Rule IV. A noun in an oblique case is commonly placed before the word which governs it: as, Laudis avidi, pecunia liberales erant—Sall. Cunctis esto benignus, nulli blandus, paucis familiaris, omnibus acquus—Senec. Adolescentis est majores natu revereri—Cic.
- Note 1. The substantive governed by an adjective in the neuter gender is generally placed after the adjective: as, Nec tibi plus cordis, sed minus oris inest—Ovid.
- Note 2. This rule, like the others, is frequently neglected, to facilitate utterance and produce harmony.

Note 3. It often happens that one or more words intervene between the word governed and the word governing; but when the words one and another are rendered in Latin by a repetition of the substantives to which they refer, they closely follow each other: as, Cuneus cuneum trudit. Thus, also, Alius aliud dicit, for One man says one thing, and another a different thing.

Rule V. The finite verb is commonly placed last in its own clause, and the principal verb is generally placed last in the sentence: as, Quorum per fines ierant, his, uti conquirerent et reduccrent, si sibi purgati esse vellent, imperavit—Cæs.

Note 1. This rule is often violated for the sake of harmony, and especially when the verb is a monosyllable. Yet, we find many sentences concluding with a word of one syllable, and apparently under the influence of the figures synalepha and ecthlipsis: as, Quæ cædes per hosce annos sine illo facta est-Cic. Altera occisa, altera capta est-Cæs. Diu atque acriter pugnatum est-Cæs. Intus inclusum periculum est—Cic. This frequently occurs also, when the preceding word ending with a consonant, and the final word beginning with a vowel, or vice versa, the two syllables are as closely connected in pronunciation as if they belonged to the same word: thus, Atque unus è filiis captus est-Cæs. Quoties consulem interficere conatus es - Cic. Impedimentis castrisque potiti sunt-Cæs. Adventu tuo ista subsellia vacua facta sunt-Cic. When the last syllable but one is short, this is named the Iambic cadence. Both poets and prose writers terminate a sentence with a monosyllable, when they intend to express indignation, abruptness, astonishment, or contempt.

Rule VI. A verb in the infinitive is usually placed before the verb which governs it, or on which it depends: as, Jugurtha, ubi eos Africâ decessisse ratus est, neque propter loci naturam Cirtam armis expugnare possil, monia circumdat—Sall.

Note 1. When the governing verb is understood, infinitives occupy the same place as finite verbs: thus, Cæterum, quà pergebat, urbes, agros vastare, prædas egere, suis animum, hostibus terrorem, augere—Sall.

Note 2. To prevent a hiatus, for the sake of harmony, or to end a sentence with an emphatic word, the infinitive is frequently placed after the verb on which it depends: as, Nam servitutem quidem quis vestrûm audebat recusare? Ex quibus neminem mihi necesse est nominare; vosmet vobiscum recordamini; nolo enim cujusquam fortis atque illustris viri ne minimum quidem erratum cum maxima laude conjungere—Cic. Nam impunè quælibet facere, id est regem esse—Sall.

Y

Rule VII. Dependent clauses, as well as single words, are placed before the principal finite verb upon which such clauses do chiefly depend: as, Quibus rebus Micipsa tametsi initio latus fuerat, existimans virtutem Jugurtha regno suo gloriae fore, tamen postquam hominem adolescentem, exacta atate sua, et parvis liberis, magis magisque crescere intelligit, vehementer eo negotio permotus, multa cum animo suo volvebat—Sall.

Note 1. This rule may, in a great degree, be inferred from Rule V. In the preceding quotation it may be observed, that volvebat, being the principal verb, is placed last; and that all the clauses which induce Micipsa's pondering, expressive of joy, hope, and alarm, are consistently placed before that verb, whose action they produced, upon which they depend, and with which they are so intimately connected.

Note 2. The chief exception to this rule occurs, when the sentence is long and complicated, so that, were all the dependent clauses introduced between the nominative and principal verb, the connexion subsisting between these two would either be lost or rendered obscure. When this is the case, the principal verb and its nominative, with the words immediately depending, are placed either first or last in the sentence: thus, Bellum scripturus sum, quod populus R. cum Jugurtha rege Numidarum gessit; primum, quia magnum et atrox, variaque victorià fuit; dein, quia tum primum superbiæ nobilitatis obviam itum est-Sall. Here it may be observed that the writing is the principal action in the sentence. The nature of the war is assigned as the inducement to write; which two circumstances are, consequently, closely connected. Yet, had the words scripturus sum, as being expressive of the chief action, been placed after the dependent clauses, it is obvious that the arrangement would have been not only unharmonious, but perplexed; since the object, bellum, which, as an antecedent, must precede quod, would have been too far removed from its governing word, scripturus. The following passage is quoted from Seneca, De Benef. l. 6, c. 31, as containing striking instances of the propriety, beauty, and energy, produced by placing the principal verb and its nominative at the end of a clause, or the conclusion of the sentence; Divina atque humana impellentem, et mutantem quicquid obstiterat trecenti stare jusserunt. Stratusque per totam passim Græciam Xerxes intellexit, quantum ab exercitu turba distaret.

Rule VIII. Adverbs are generally placed immediately before the words to which they belong: as, Nihil tam as perum, neque tam difficile esse, quod non cupidissime facturi essent—Sall.

- Note 1. When the adverb is an emphatic word, it is often placed after: as, Ut tibi necesse esset in conspectu P. R. vomere postridiè—Cic.
- Note 2. Words intimately connected with the word to which the adverb refers, are generally placed between them: as, Semperque his aliena virtus formidolosa est—Sall. Sed maxime adolescentium familiaritates appetebat—Sall. Non tam in bellis et in præliis, quàm in promissis et fide firmiorem—Cic.
- Note 3. Antequam, postquam, and priusquam are elegantly divided, one part being often put in one member of the sentence, and the other in another: thus, Ita bello intra dies xxx perfecto, antè cognitum est Gentium victum, quàm cœptum bellum nunciaretur—Eutrop. Filius anno post Quæstor fuit, quàm Consul Mummius—Cic. Atque ita perterritos egerunt, ut non priùs fugâ desisterent, quàm in conspectum agminis nostri venissent—Cæs.
- Rule IX. Prepositions usually precede the cases governed by them: as, *Ad lucem* dormire—Cic. Nihil est *ab omni parte* beatum—Hor.
 - Note 1. This rule is contrary to the first general maxim.
- Note 2. Prepositions are often placed after the relative pronoun; as, Quam circa, quem penes, quos inter, &c.: thus, also, Si quos inter societas aut est, aut fuit—Cic. Hæc aiunt probari a Stoicis quos contra disputant—Cic.
- Note 3. We generally find mecum, tecum, secum, nobiscum, vobiscum; and quicum, quocum, quacum, quibuscum, are much more frequent than cum quo, &c.
- Note 4. Tenus and versus are set after their cases; usque is sometimes placed before and sometimes after: as, Daciam tenus venit—Flor. Aurium tenus—Quinct. Cum Arretium versus castra movisset—Cic. Usque Ephesum—Plin. Tharsum usque—Cic. Many other prepositions are placed, both by poets and prose writers, after as well as before their cases: as, Saxa per et scopulos—Virg. Te propter—Virg. Hunc adversus—Nep. Urbem juxta—Tac. &c.
- Note 5. The preposition is elegantly placed between the adjective and substantive: as, Quam ad suavitatem—Cic. Suos inter æquales—Cic. Paucos post dies—Liv. Hoc ex loco—Cic. Nulla in re—Cic; thus also the compounds quemadmodum, quamobrem.
- Note 6. The poets, probably for the sake of the metre, sometimes place one or more words between the preposition and its case: as, Vulneraque illa gerens quæ eircum plurima muros Accepit patrios—Virg. Qui faciunt solem certa de surgere parte—Lucret.

RULE X. Certain conjunctions are placed first in a clause or sentence; some, after the first word; and others, in the first or second place, indifferently. See p. 156.

Note 1. Autem and enim are sometimes found in the third place; as, Quid tu autem, asine, hic auscultas?—Ter. Odiosa illa enim fuerant, legiones venire—Cic. Etiam is found in the fourth place: as, At juvenis nihil etiam sequius suspicatus—Apul. Tamen is sometimes found after the second or third word of its clause: as, Tu moriere tamen—Propert. Tu, si tuis blanditiis tamen—Cic.

Note 2. The poets sometimes join que to a different word from what the natural order of the sentence requires: as, Ore pedes

tetigitque crura-Hor. for tetigit pedes cruraque.

Note 3. The poets also sometimes change the position of the prepositives, et, atque, nec, neque, sed, siquidem, vel, &c.: as, Suspiciens altam lunam, et sic voce precatur—Virg. Nec deus hunc mensâ, dea nec dignata cubili est—Virg. Ipsa sed in somnis inhumati venit imago Conjugis—Virg. &c.

Rule XI. Words connected in sense should not be separated by words that are extraneous.

Note 1. The violation of this rule is named Synchysis; of which the following are examples: Vidi ego qui juvenem seros desisset amores—Tibull. for Vidi ego juvenem, qui. Quisquis erit vitæ, seribam, color—Hor. Here scribam constitutes no parenthetical clause; neither is it connected by sense, government, or concord, with either of the words between which it stands. Its place seems to be before quisquis, or, rather, after color. Sed bona si quis Judice condiderit, laudatur Cæsare—Hor. The place of judice seems to be in the clause with laudatur. Penè arsit macros dum turdos versat in igne—Hor. instead of Dum versat macros turdos, perè arsit in igne. To these may perhaps be added such inversions as, Per ego te deos oro—Ter. Per ego te, inquit, fili, quæcunque jura liberos jungunt parentibus, precor quæsoque—Liv. 23, 9.

RULE XII. In general, there should be neither a redundance of long measures or long words, nor of short measures or short words; and, as far as perspicuity and the general system of arrangement will permit, when the foregoing word ends with a vowel, let the next begin with a consonant, and vice versa; taking care, at the same time, that the last syllables of the foregoing word be not the same as the first syllables of the word following, and that many words which bear the same quantity, which begin alike or end alike, or which have the same characteristic letter in declension or conjugation, do not come together.

Perhaps the following sentence from Cæsar may be considered, according to the way in which it is commonly read, as deficient in some of these particulars; Quæ pars ut ante dictum est, et regionum latitudine, et multitudine hominum, ex tertia parte Gallia est astimanda; in which there are, within a small compass, three words terminating in um, the last two in num; two words ending in titudine; one word ending in e, and another beginning with it; one ending in α , and another beginning with it: six monosyllables almost close together, and two of them, est and et. of nearly the same sound; a hiatus in latitudine ct, and another in Gallia est; and an alliteration, or a repetition of the concluding syllable of the former word, in the commencement of the following, in cst astimanda.

These few Rules, aided by practice, and attention to the arrangement adopted by the best classical writers, may, perhaps, be found of some utility. It is almost needless to observe, that, in Latin, as well as in English, a principal object is to avoid such a collocation of words as may lead to ambiguity, or a confusion of ideas; this being done, the ear will be a tolerable guide with respect to the beauty of cadences, and the harmony of periods, as the judgment will be, in regard to a strong, and an emphatic arrangement! As Quintilian observes, "Felicissimus sermo est, cui et rectus ordo, et apta junctura, et cum his numerus opportune cadens contingit." And again; "Optime autem de illa [compositione] judicant aures; quæ et plena sentiunt, et parûm expleta desiderant, et fragosis offenduntur, et lenibus mulcentur, et contortis excitantur, et stabilia probant, clauda deprehendunt, redundantia et nimia fastidiunt." -Inst. 9, 4.

OF FIGURATIVE SYNTAX.

The Figures of Syntax are reduced to four kinds, Ellipsis, Pleonasm, Enallage, and Hyperbaton.

OF ELLIPSIS.

Ellipsis is the omission, in a sentence, of some word, or words, necessary to supply the regular syntax.

¹ Such as wish to see this subject thoroughly discussed, are referred to the writings of Cicero and Quintilian. Learners may likewise, with considerable advantage, consult Mr. Valpy's "Elegantiæ Latinæ," and Mr. Lyne's " Latin Primer:" two school-books containing much useful information.

It is termed *strict*, when the word to be supplied is not to be found in any part of the sentence. It affects all the

parts of speech; thus,

1. The Noun; as Aiunt, supply homines. Non est oneri ferendo, supply aptus. 2. The Pronoun; as Arma virumque cano, supply ego. 3. The Verb; as Quid multa? supply dicam. 4. The Participle; as Saturno rege, supply ente or existente. 5. The Adverb; as Vulnerantur amplius sexcenti—Cæs, supply quam. 6. The Preposition; as Eo Romam, supply ad. 7. The Interjection: as, Me miserum, supply O or heu. 8. The Conjunction, as will be seen under Asyndeton.

The ellipsis is named lax or loose, when the word omitted may be supplied from some part of the sentence; as, Virtus (cogebat, et honestas (cogebat), et pudor cum consulibus esse cogebat—Cic. The former kind of ellipsis contains the figures, Apposition, Synecdoche, and Asyndeton. The latter contains, Zeugma, Syllepsis,

and Prolepsis.

Apposition is, when, in putting two substantives together in the same case, existens, or the obsolete ens, or some other part of sum, with a relative, is understood: as, Urbs Roma, i. e. urbs

existens, ens, or, quæ est, Roma.

Synecdoche is, when, instead of an ablative of the part, or of the adjunct. an accusative is used, the Greek κατα, secundum, or quod ad, being understood: as, Expleri (quod ad) mentem nequit—Virg.

Asyndeton is the omission of a conjunction: as, Abit, excessit,

erasit, erupit-Cic. supply et. Sex septem dies, supply vel.

Zeugma is, when an adjective or verb referring to different substantives, is expressed to the last only, with which it agrees, being understood to the rest: as, Et genus, et virtus, nisi cum re, vilior algaest—Hor. Hicillius arma hic currus fuit—Virg. Quamvis ille niger, quanvis tu candidus esses—Virg. Zeugma is found in the beginning, middle, or end of a sentence. And sometimes the adjective or verbs agree with the more remote substantive; sometimes with the principal substantive; and sometimes with another.

Syllepsis is, when the adjective or verb, joined to different sub-

stantives, agrees with the more worthy.

A syllepsis of gender is, when an adjective, joined to two substantives of different genders, agrees with the more worthy gender. It is termed explicit, when substantives of different genders are expressed: as, Attoniti novitate pavent, manibusque supinis Concipiunt Baucisque preces timidusque Philemon—Ovid. It is called implicit when they are suppressed: as, Ut templi tetigêre gradus, procumbit uterque Pronus humi—Ovid. i. e. Deucalion et Pyrrha.

It is also named direct or indirect. The direct is produced by a copulative conjunction: as, Pater mihi et mater mortui—Ter. The indirect, by a preposition: as, Dux hostium can urbe Valen-

tiå et exercitu deleti--Sall. Note 1. When the substantives express things inanimate, the adjective is generally put in the neuter gender: as, -- arcum -- et calamos; quæ—Virg. Note 2. When with two substantives of different genders, a plural substantive is placed in apposition, the more worthy gender is preferred: as, Ptolemæus et Cleopatra reges Ægypti—Liv. i. e. rex

et regina.

A syllepsis of the persons is, when a plural verb, joined to two substantives of different persons, agrees with the more worthy. It is named explicit, when the persons are expressed: as, Sustulinus manus et ego et Balbus—Cic. Implicit, or implied, when they are not expressed: as, Quem per urbem uterque defessi sumus quærere—Plaut. It is also direct; as, Ego et Cicero valemus—Cic. Indirect: as, Ipse cum fratre Capuam ad consules adesse jussi sumus—Cic. A syllepsis of the numbers is, when the substantives being of different numbers, the adjective or verb is put in the plural: as, Phrygii comites, et letus Iülus, Incedunt—Virg. Projectisque amiculo et literis—Curt. It is sometimes indirect: as, Equites cum Emilio subvenientes periculo cæteros exemêre—Tacit.

Prolepsis is, when the parts, differing in number or in person from the whole, are placed after it, the verb or the adjective not being repeated: as, Boni quoniam convenimus ambo, tu calamos inflare leves, ego dicere versus—Virg. i. e tu convenisti bonus calamos inflare, ego conveni, &c. It is named explicit, when the whole and the parts are mentioned: as, Consules, Sulpicius in dextro, Petilius in lavo cornu, consistunt—Liv. Implicit, when the whole, or the parts are omitted: as, Curemus æquam uterque partem; tu alterum, ego item alterum—Ter. i. e. nos uterque, ego meam, tu tuam partem curemus. Vestras quisque redite domos—

Ovid. i. e. vos redite domos, tu tuam, alius suam.

OF PLEONASM.

Pleonasm adds unnecessary words; thus, 1. The Noun: as, Sic ore locata est—Virg. 2. The Pronoun: as, Pater tuns, is erat frater patruelis meus—Plaut. 3. The Participle: as, Post-quam primus amor deceptam morte fefellit—Virg. 4. The Adverb: as, Præsensit priùs—Plaut. 5. The Conjunction: as, Itaque ergo amantur—Ter. Etsi quamvis—Cic. Under Pleonasm are comprehended, Parelcon Polysyndeton, Hendiadys, and Periphrasis.

Parelcon is the addition of an unnecessary syllable or particle to pronouns, verbs, or adverbs; chiefly, perhaps, for the sake of

emphasis: as, egomet, agedum, agesis, fortassean.

Polysyndeton is a redundancy of conjunctions: as, Unà Eurusque Notusque ruunt, creberque procedlis Africus—Virg. This use of the conjunctions by Virgil, is noticed under the examination of the Hexameter.

Hendiadys (i. e. Lv διὰ δυοῖν) expresses one thing, as if it were two things: as, Pateris libamus et auro—Virg. instead of pateris

aureis.

Periphrasis is a circuitous manner of expression: as, Teneri fietus ovium—Virg. i. e. lambs.

OF ENALLAGE.

Enallage, in a general sense, is the change of words, or of their accidents, one for another. There are various kinds of it: viz. Antimeria, Enallage, strictly so called, Heterosis, and Antiptosis. To Enallage may likewise be referred Synesis, Anacoluthon, Hel-

lenismus, and Archaismus.

Antimeria puts one part of speech for another: thus, 1. The Noun for the Pronoun: as, Si quid in Flacco viri est-Hor. insterd of in me, for Horace himself is speaking. For the Verb: as, Tua indicatio est-Plaut. for tuum est indicare. For the Participle: as, Populum late regem-Virg. for regnantem. For the Adverb: as, Sole recens orto-Virg. for recenter. For the Interjection: as, Navibus, infandum! amissis-Virg. 2. The Pronoun for the Noun: as, suns for uniquique proprius, in Mittunt sua thura Sabæi-Virg. For the Conjunction: as, Huic conjuncta beneficentia est, quam eandem vel benignitatem vel liberalitatem appellare licet-Cic. for quam etiam. 3. The Verb for the Noun: as, Nostrum istud vivere triste-Pers. for nostra vita. For the Interjection: as, age used in exhortation; apage as a token of aversion. For the Conjunction: as, licet for quamvis. 4. The Participle for the Noun: as, amans for amator; medentes for medici. For the Verb: as, Torpedo octogenos fætus habens invenitur-Plin, for habere. For the Adverb: as, Lubens fecero et solens-Plaut. for libenter et consuete. 5. The Adverb for the Noun: as, Aliud cras-Pers, for alius dies crastinus. Thus also, benè est, rectè est, for bonum est, rectum est. For the Pronoun Qui, with some preposition expressed or understood: as, Capiunt prædones navem illam, ubi vectus fui-Plant. for qua, or in qua. For the Preposition: as, Intus templo divûm, (for in) - Virg. For the Conjunction: as, Dum, jam, nunc, adverbs of time, used, the first as a conditional conjunction, the second as a continuative, and the third as an adversative. Thus also, quando for quoniam. 6. The Preposition for the Noun: as, super for superstes, in O mihi sola mei super Astyanactis imago-Virg. For the Adverb; as, ante, post, infra, instead of anteà, posteà, inferiùs. 7. The Interjection for the Noun or Adverb: as, Hei mihi, for malum vel male mihi est. 8. The Conjunction for the Adverb: as, sed for imo in Plaut. Habet gladium, sed duos. Si for an in Ter. Visam, si domi est.

Enallage, strictly so named, is when one word is substituted for another, the part of speech not being changed; as Noun for

Noun, Verb for Verb, &c.: thus,

1. The Substantive for the Adjective; as, Exercitus victor, for victoriosus. Thus also the Abstract for the Concrete: as, conjugium for conjux, in Virgil Æn. ii. 579.

2. The Adjective for the Substantive: as, Possum falli, ut humanus—Cic. for ut homo. Thus also the Concrete for the Abs-

tract; as, verum, bonum, acquum—for veritas, bonitas, acquitas. The Noun proper, instead of the Appellative: as, Omne tempus Clodios, non omne Catones fert—Senec. in which Clodios is put for homines improbos, and Catones for viros probos. The Noun appellative for the Proper: as, Urbs for Roma. The Primitive for the Derivative: as, Dardana arma for Dardania; Laticem Lyceum, for Lyceium, in Virgil. The Derivative for the Primitive: as, Ter denis navibus ibant, for ter decem. The Simple for the Compound: as, avus for abavus; nepos for pronepos. The Compound for the Simple: as, consceleratus for sceleratus.

". One Pronoun used for another: as the Relative for the Reciproval, &c. (See Pronouns.) The Primitive for the Derivative: as, Voluntas vestrûm, for vestra. Labor mei, for meus. The Derivative for the Primitive: as, Desiderium tuum, Odium tuum, for tui. (See Pronouns.) The Simple for the Compound: as, Quis for aliquis. The Compound for the Simple: as, tibimet for tibi, memet for me, in Seneca, Agam. v. 798, and Œdip. v. 847, where

met is evidently redundant.

4. In the Verb, the Active voice used for the Passive: as, Jam, verterat fortuna—Liv. for versa est; unless, in such sentences as this, there is an ellipsis of se. The Passive for the Active: as, Placitam Paci nutritor olivam—Virg. for nutrito. The Primitive for the Derivative: as, Qui Syracusis habet—Plaut. for habitat. Cernere ferro—Virg. for certare. The Derivative for the Primitive: as, Ductare exercitum, Agitare lectitiam, Objectare periculis, in Sallust, for ducere, agere, objicere. The Simple for the Compound: as, Mæstumque timorem mittite—Virg. for omittite. The Compound for the Simple: as, Deprecor for precor. Justin xi. 9. Retine me—Ter. Heaut. iii. 4. 23. for tene.

5. In the Participle, the Active for the Passive: as, Tondenti barba cadebat—Virg. for tonso. The Passive for the Active: as, Dido, vultum demissa, profatur—Virg. for demittens. In the former there is an ellipsis of me; in the latter, of ad, or quod ad.

6. In the Adverb, with regard to its signification: as, ubi for quando; ibi for tum, &c. Thus also, the adverbs of quality bene and male are used for the purpose of intension, instead of valde: as, Sermo bene longus—Cic. And a determinate number is used for one uncertain: as, Millies audivi, for sapissime. O terque, quaterque beati, for maxime beati. Likewise in respect to their form, the Simple are used for the Compound: as, quò, quò, for quòcunque, quàcunque.

7. In the Preposition and Conjunction, Enallage occurs, when one is used for another: as, Ad judicem agere—Cic. for apud. Thus also, et is used for ctiam; si for quamvis; dum for dumma-

do, &c.

1. Heterosis uses one Accident, especially of a noun, pronoun, or verb, for another: as, Ego quoque una perco, quod mihi est carius—Ter. for qui nuhi sum carior, in which the neuter gender is used for the masculine. Romanus, Scotvs, Gallus, for Romani,

Scoti, Galli, in which the singular is used for the plural. Colla, corda, ora, &c. are used among the poets for Collum, cor, os, &c.

Thus also nos and noster for ego and meus.

2. In the Verb, the Indicative is used for the Subjunctive; as, Me truncus illapsus cerebro sustulerat—Hor. for sustulisset. For the Imperative: as, Tu hoc silebis—Cic. for sile. For the Infinitive: as, Verum ego illum, spero mutari potest—Plaut. for posse. The Subjunctive for the Indicative: as, Ubi socordiæ te atque ignaviæ tradideris, nequidquam deos implores—Sall. for implorabis. For the Imperative: as, quiescas for quiesce—Ter. and passim. The Imperative for the Indicative: as, Si fætura gregem suppleverit, aureus esto—Virg. for eris. The Infinitive for the Imperfect of the Indicative: as, Facile omnes perferre ac pati—Ter. for perferebat ac patiebatur. For the Subjunctive: as, Bona censuerunt reddi—Liv. for ut redderentur.

In regard to the Time, the Present for the Imperfect: as, Tu si hic sis, aliter sentias - Ter for esses, sentires. For the Preterite: as, Quandudum in portum venis?-Plaut for venisti. For the Future of the same mood, or of a different: as, Quam mox navigo Ephesum-Plaut. for navigabo. Quem neque gloria, neque pericula excitant, neguidguam hortere-Sall, for hortaberis. The Imperfect for the Present: as, Persuadet Castico, ut regnum occuparet-Cas. for occupet. For the Pluperfect: as, Negue diutius Numidæ resistere quivissent, ni pedites cum equitibus permixti magnam cladem in congressu facerent—Sall. for fecissent. The Perfect for the Present: as. Magnum si pectore posset Excussisse deum -Virg for excutere. For the Pluperfect: as, Jam flammæ tulerint, inimicus et hauserit ensis - Virg. for tulissent and hausisset. For the Future: as, Si hoc bene fixum omnibus destinatumque in animo est, vicistis-Liv. for vincetis. The Perfect Subjunctive for the Future Indicative: as, Si paululum modo quid te fugerit, ego perierim—Ter. for peribo. The Pluperfect for the Imperfect : as, Si saniora consilia pati potuisset, contentus patrio cederet alieni imperii finibus -- Curt. for posset. The Future for the Present : as, Verbum hercle hoc verum erit-Ter. for est. Respiráro, si te videro - Cic. for respirabo. For the Imperative: as, Luant peccata; neque illos Juveris auxilio - Virg. for juvato or juves.

The Singular number for the Plural: as, Quæ loca Numidia appellatur—Sall. for appellantur. The Plural for the Singular: as, Moloni Rhodio dedimus operam—Cic. for dedi. The First person used indefinitely for the Third: as, Aberatea regio L. stadia ab aditu quo Ciliciam intranus—Curt for homines intrant. The Second for the First, when any one accosts himself, as if another: as, Impia quid dubitas Deianira mori?—Ovid. for ego dubito. Used also indefinitely for the Third: as, Fidelem haud fermè mulieri invenias virum—Ter. for quis inveniat. The Third for the First: as, Si quis me quæret rufus. DA. Præsto est—Ter. for

præsto sum, for the person himself speaketh.

Antiptosis uses one case for another: thus, 1. The Nominative

for the Accusative: as, Uxor invicti Jovis esse nescis—Hor. for te esse uxorem For the Vocative: as. Adsis latitice Bacchus dator -Virg. for Bacche. 2. The Genitive for the Nominative: as, Expediti militum-Liv. for milites. For the Dative: as, Ut civitates Asia, qua Attali stipendiaria fuissent, Eumeni vectigal penderent-Liv. for Attalo. 3. The Dative for the Nominative: as, Cui nunc cognomen Iilo-Virg. for Iilus. For the Genitive: as, Cui dextra trisulcis Ignibus armata est—Ovid. for cujus. For the Accusative: as, Nobis non licet esse tam disertis- Mart. for disertos. For the Ablative with a or ab: as, Neque cernitur ulli—Virg. for ab ullo. 4. The Accusative for the Nominative: as, Mean uxorem, Libane, nescis qualis siet—Plant. for nescis qualis sit mea uxor. For the Dative: as, Ut arma sua quisque stantes incumberent— Sall. for armis suis. For the Ablative: as, Omnia Mercurio similis-Virg. for in omnibus. 5. The Vocative for the Nominative: as, Quibus Hector ab oris Expectate venis? - Virg. for expectatus. 6. The Ablative for the Dative: as, Aliquo negotio intentus—Sall, for alicui negotio. For the Accusative; as, Sape suo victor lenis in hoste fuit-Ovid. for in hostem.

Synesis is, when the construction refers to the sense, rather than to the precise nature of a word: thus, 1. As to Gender: as, Scelus postquam ludificatus est virginem—Ter. for scelestus. 2 Number: as, Clamor inde concursusque populi, mirantium quid rei est—Liv. for mirantis. 3. As to both: as, Pars in crucem acti pars bestiis objecti—Sall. for acta, objecta—Note Sometimes, two verbs referring to the same collective noun, one is put in the singular and the other in the plural: as, Pars stupet innuptee do-

num exitiale Minerva, Et molem mirantur equi—Virg.

Synesis is divided into the *explicit* and the *implicit*. The *explicit* is, when the noun is expressed to which the verb or adjective refers, although it does not agree with it, but with some other of the same sense, as in the preceding examples. The *implicit* is, when the substantive is not expressed but is implied in the adjective going before: as, *Id mea minime refert*, qui sum natu maxi-

mus—Ter. in which qui refers to ego included in mea.

Anacoluthon is when the Consequents do not agree with the Antecedents: as, Nam nos omnes, quibus est alicunde aliquis objectus labos, omne quad est interea tempus, priusquam id rescitum est, lucro est—Ter. in which the author began, as if he intended to say lucro habemus, and ended as if he had said nobis omnibus. As the sentence is, there is no verb to which nos omnes is a nominative.

Hellenismus, or Gracismus, is an imitation of Greek construction; thus, 1. When with Substantives of a different Gender an Adjective is used in the Neuter gender, as, Triste lupus stabulis—Virg. 2. When after certain Adjectives and Verbs, a Genitive is used: as, Prestans animi. Abstine irarum—Hor. 3. When after verbs of contending of distance, of coming together, and of warding off, a Dative is used: as, Solus tibi certet Amuntus—Virg. 4. When the Accusative, instead of the Nominative, is joined to

the verb referring to the whole of the subsequent part of the sentence: as, Ego te faciam ut miser sis-Plaut. for faciam ut tu. 5. When the Nominative, instead of the Accusative, is used after esse, and similar infinitives: as, Acceptum refero versibus esse nocens—Ovid. for me esse nocentem. 6. When the Dative, answering to the antecedent, is used with the verb esse, and the like, instead of the Accusative: as, Penelope licet esse tibi sub Principe Nerva—Mart. for Penelopen. 7. When to Nouns is added an Infinitive, the Latin language requiring a different form of expression: as, Fruges consumerc nati-Hor. for ad fruges consumendas. 8. When the accusative of part, or of the adjunct, is used after Adjectives or Verbs: as, Fractus membra-Hor. Expleri mentem-Virg. 9. When the neuter gender of Adjectives is used adverbially: as, Acerba tuens-Virg. for acerbe. 10. To Greek construction may be referred such ellipses as Urbem quam statuo vestra est—Virg. for urbs quam (urbem). 11. The following expressions of Horace may be considered as Græcisms: Mammæ putres, Equina quales ubera, for qualia. Also, Animæ quales neque candidiores Terra tulit, for qualibus. To Hellenism may likewise be referred many of those changes noticed under Heterosis and Antiptosis.

Archaism is when an obsolete construction is used: as, Quid tibi hanc curatio est rem—Plaut. When Utor, abutor, fruor, govern an accusative. When the Future Participle active, and perfect passive, are used as indeclinables, with esse: as, Hanc sibi rem præsidio sperant futurum—Cic. Likewise when such ex-

pressions are used as Absente nobis, Præsente testibus.

OF HYPERBATON.

Hyperbaton is, in a general sense, a transgression of the common order and position of words or sentences. There are seven kinds of it; viz., Anastrophe, Hysteron proteron, Hypallage, Synchysis, Tmesis, Parenthesis, and Hyperbaton, strictly so called.

Anastrophe is the placing of those words last (chiefly prepositions), which ought to precede: as, mecum for cum me, Collo dare

brachia circum—Virg. for circumdare.

Hysteron proteron changes the natural order of the sense: as,

Valet atque vivit—Ter.

Hypallage is an interchange of cases: as, Dare classibus Austros

-Virg. for Dare classes Austris.

Synchysis is a confused arrangement of words: as, Saxa vocant Itali mediis Quæ in fluctibus Aras—Virg. for quæ saxa in mediis fluctibus Itali vocant Aras.

Tmesis divides a compound word: as, Per mihi gratum feceris

- Cic. for pergratum.

Parenthesis is an interruption of the sense, by the insertion of some word, or words: as, Tityre, dum redeo, (brevis est via,) pasce capellas—Virg.

Hyperbaton, strictly so named, is, when the principal verb in a sentence is put at rather a great distance from its nominative: as,

Interea reges: ingenti mole Latinus Quadrijugo vehitur curru, cui tempora circum Aurati bis sex radii fulgentia cingunt, Solis avi specimen: bigis it Turnus in albis, Bina manu lato crispans hastilia ferro: Hinc pater Æneas Romanæ stirpis origo, Sidereo flagrans clypeo et cœlestibus armis; Et juxta Ascanius magnæ spes altera Romæ: Procedunt castris - - - - - Virg.

in which, between the nominative reges and the verb procedunt, there are seven whole verses and a hemistich: in some editions, however, the period is concluded at ferro, vehuntur being supposed understood after reges; so that Eneas and Ascanius are then considered as the only nominatives to procedunt.

I shall conclude this explanation of the figures of syntax with a brief account of the principal

TROPES AND FIGURES OF RHETORIC 1.

A Trope is the elegant turning of a word, for the sake of illustration, from its natural and genuine sense, to one that is relative or secondary.

A Figure conveys some beauty, or expresses some passion, by a mode of speaking different from, and more beautiful and emphatical than, the usual way of expressing the same sense.

PRIMARY TROPES.

1. A Metaphor is a simile without formal comparison, and puts a word of likeness for the proper word: as, Captis aspirate - Ovid.

i. e. favete.

2. A Metonymy changes names, or puts a noun of relation instead of the proper word; as the cause for the effect, the subject for the adjunct, the antecedent for the consequent, &c.: as, Mars for bellum; Lyaus for vinum. Implentur veteris Bacchi-Virg., old wine.

3. Synecdoche puts the whole for the part, or vice versa: it likewise confounds the singular and plural: as, Animaque litandum Argolica-Virg. for homine Argolico. Armato milite complent-

Virg. for militibus armatis.

4. Irony or Dissimulation thinks one thing and expresses another, yet so that the real meaning may be discovered; thus it blames when it seems to commend, commends when it seems to blame, &c.: as, O salve, bone custos, curásti probe!-Ter. You have taken extraordinary care, my trusty keeper! Egregiam vero laudem et spolia ampla refertis, Tuque puerque tuus-Virg.

¹ The tropes and figures properly belong to the art of Rhetoric; yet, as they may be classed under that branch of syntax which is called figurative, it is not inconsistent with the nature of grammar to give some account of them.

SECONDARY TROPES.

These are so named because they may, generally, be comprehended under the primary tropes.

1. Catachresis is a bolder or harsher metaphor, as when we say a Wooden tombstone, a Glass inkhorn, &c.: Vir gregis ipse caper deerraverat—Virg. The husband of the flock, i. e. dux gregis.

2. Hyperbole magnifies or lessens beyond the strict bounds of credibility: as, Rivers of blood. Candidior cycnis—Virg. Ocyor

Euro-Virg.

3. Metalepsis is the advance, or continuation of a trope, through successive significations: as, Post aliquot aristas—Virg. in which arista (a beard of corn) is put for seges, seges for messis, and messis for annus, i. c. after some years. Hinc movet Euphrates, illinc Germania bellum—Virg. in which Euphrates is put for Mesopotamia, which is washed by it, and Mesopotamia for the inhabitants.

4. Allegory is a chain of tropes: as, Claudite jam rivos, pueri, sat prata biberunt—Virg. Swains, stop now your streams, the meadows have drunk their fill, i. e. Leave off your songs, there

has been sufficient entertainment.

- 5. Antonomasia puts a proper name for a common one, and vice versa; as when we call a debauched person, a Sardanapalus; a grave man, a Cato; a poor man, an Irus, a beggarly attendant on Penelope's suitors. Irus et est subito, qui modo Cræsus erat—Ovid.
- 6. Litotes affirms more strongly, by denying the contrary: as, Non laudo—Ter. I blame you much. Est qui nec veteris pocula Massici spernit—Hor. There are persons fond of a glass of old Massic wine.

7. Onomatopæia coins words from sound: as rush, squeak, hiss, crash. Thus also in Latin, arma stridentia; tinnitus æris; rugitus leonum; grunnitus porcorum, &c.

8. Antiphrasis is a species of irony depending upon one word, names being given contrary to the nature of the things, as calling a dwarf a giant; a grove lucus, because, perhaps, non lucet.

9. Charientismus gives soft words for harsh: as, Bona verba

queeso-Ter.

10. Asteismus is a witty jest, or facetious jeer: as, Qui Bavium non odit, amet tua carmina, Mævi; Atque idem jungat vulpes et mulgeat hircos—Virg. Who hates not Bavius, may it be his curse to love thy verses, Mævius; and may the same person yoke foxes, and milk he-goats.

11. Diasyrmus reflects upon a living enemy: as, Si cantas, male

cantas; si legis, cantas—Quintil.

12. Sarcasmus insults any one in a malicious manner: as, I ver-

bis virtutem illude superbis—Virg.

- 13. Paræmia is a proverbial form of expression: as, Many hands make light work. Lupum auribus teneo—Ter. I know not how to act.
 - 14. Ænigma is a sort of obscure allegory, or an ingenious riddle

as, Die quibus in terris, et eris mihi magnus Apollo, Tres pateat cœli spatium non amplius ulnas—Virg.

EIGURES LYING IN THE LANGUAGE.

1. Antanaclasis is the use of the same word in different senses: as, Quis neget Æneæ natum de stirpe Neronem? Sustulit hic matrem, sustulit ille patrem—Epigr. The latter took off (that is killed) his mother; the former took off (affectionately removed from danger) his father. Let the dead bury their dead—Matt. viii. 22. i. e. them that are dead in sin, bury those that are naturally dead, or lifeless.

2. Place is the repetition of a proper name, or of another noun, in a way in which the quality of the subject is denoted: as, His wife is a wife indeed. Ex illo Corydon, Corydon est tempore no-

bis-Virg.

3. Anaphora begins different sentences, or clauses of the same sentence, with the same word: as, He pines, he sickens, he despairs, he dies—Add. Cato. Te, dulcis conjux, Te, solo in littore

secum; Te, veniente die, Te, decedente, canebat - Virg.

4. Epistrophe is a repetition of the same word, at the end of different sentences or clauses: as, Are they Hebrews? so am I. Are they Israelites? so am I-2 Cor. xi. 22. Namque ego, crede mihi, si te quoque pontus haberet; Te sequerer, conjux, et me quoque pontus haberet—Ovid. It is sometimes called Epiphora.

5. Symploce is a complication of the two last, beginning the several clauses with one word, and ending them with another: as, Quis legem tulit? Rullus: Quis majorem populi partem suffragiis privavit? Rullus: Quis comitiis præfuit? Idem Rullus—Cic.

6. Epanalepsis begins and ends a sentence with the same word: as, Rejoice in the Lord alway, and again I say, rejoice—Phil. iv. 4.

Multa super Priamo rogitans, super Hectore multa—Virg.

7. Anadiplosis ends one clause, and begins another, with the same words: as, For whether we live, we live unto the Lord; and whether we die, we die unto the Lord—Rom. xiv. 8. Quamdiu quisquam erit, qui te defendere audeut, vives: et vives, ita ut nunc vivis—Cic. Hic tamen vivit: Vivit? imo vero ctiam in senatum venit—Cic.

8. Epanados repeats in an inverted order the same words, in a second clause: as, Crudelis mater magis, an puer improbus ille?

Improbus ille puer, crudelis tu quoque, mater - Virg.

9. Epizeuxis repeats the same word, for the sake of emphasis: as, Ah Corydon, Corydon, quæ te dementia cepit—Virg. Excitate,

excitate eum, si potestis, ab inferis-Cic.

10. Climax is an amplification by steps, in which each part of a sentence, arising above the former, begins with the conclusion of the former, and in this respect it is a continued Anadiplosis: as, Quæ reliqua spes manet libertatis, si illis et quod libet, licet; et quod licet, possunt; et quod possunt, audent; et quod audent, vo-

bis molestum non est—Cic. When the sense advances without a strict climax, it is called *Incrementum*; when the sense is gradually heightened, it is called *Anabasis*; and when it falls or decreases, *Catabasis*.

11. Polyptoton uses the same word in different cases: as, Jam clypeus clypeis, umbone repellitur umbo; ense minax ensis, pede pes, et cuspide cuspis—Stat. The same kind of figure may be applied

to genders and tenses.

12. Paregmenon uses several words of the same origin, in one sentence: as, Abesse non potest, quin ejusdem hominis sit, qui improbas probet, probos improbare—Cic.

13. Paronomasia plays upon the sound of words: as, Who dares greatly, dies greatly. Amor et melle et felle est fæcundissimus—Plaut. Tibi parata erunt verba, huic verbera—Ter.

14. Homoioteleuton ends several clauses, with the same sound: as, Cæsar, dando, sublevando, ignoscendo, gloriam adeptus est—

Sall.

15 Parachesis, or Alliteration, uses letters or syllables of the same sound: as, Neu patriæ validas in viscera vertite vires—Virg. The various kinds of alliteration will be noticed under the remarks on the Hexameter verse.

FIGURES LYING IN THE SENTIMENT.

1. For Proof.

1. Ætiologia assigns a reason for a proposition previously expressed: as, Sperne voluntates: nocet empta dolore voluntas—Hor.

2. Inversion, or the turning of an argument, is when an orator makes that for his own advantage which was alleged against him: as, At fratres meos, inquit, quod erant conscii, in vincula conjecit: cum, igitur, eos vinciret, quos secum habebat; te solutum Roman mittebat, qui eadem scires quæ illos scire dicis—Cic.

3. Prolepsis anticipates objections: as: Verùm anceps pugnæ fuerat fortuna: fuisset: Quem, metui moritura?—Virg. The objection is called Hypophora. The answer is called Anthypophora: and if the objection is turned against the adversary, it is named,

as in the last, Inversion or Antistrophe.

4. Epitrope, or Concession, concedes a point to an adversary, in order to confute him more effectually: as, Sint sane, quoniam ita se mores habent, liberales ex sociorum fortunis; sint misericordes in furibus ærarii:—ne illi sanguinem nostrum largiantur—Sall.

5. Mimesis refutes an adversary by repeating his own arguments, with a sneer, as unworthy of a serious answer: as, Nunc augur Apollo, nunc Lyciæ sortes, nunc et Jove missus ab ipso Interpres Divûm fert horrida jussa per auras—Virg.

2. For Explanation.

1. Paradiastole, or Contra-distinction, explains more forcibly

by comparing opposites: as, Non sapiens, sed astutus. Non for-

mosus erat, sed erat facundus Ulysses-Ovid.

2. Antimetabole or Antimetathesis is a kind of Epanados, repeating opposites in an inverted order: as, Poëma est pictura loquens, mutum pictura poëma.—Vide Hor. Art. Poet. 361.

3. Antithesis places contraries in opposition to each other: as, Flectere si nequeo superos, Acheronta movebo-Virg. Hujus oratio-

nis difficilius est exitum quam principium invenire-Cic.

4. Oxymoron is a seeming contradiction, uniting contraries together: as, Concordia discors-Hor. Cum tacent, clamant-Cic. She is dead, while she liveth-1 Tim. v. 6.

3. Hypotyposis gives a lively image or description: as, Obstu-

pui, steteruntque comæ, et vox faucibus hæsit-Virg.

6. Dialyton, or Asyndeton, omits conjunctions: as, Ferte citi flammas, date velu, impellite remos-Virg. The want of the conjunction denotes celerity of action. See Ellipsis.

7. Polysyndeton is the reverse of the last, being the use of many conjunctions: as, Somnus, enim, et vinum, et epulæ, et scorta, balneaque, corpora atque animos enervârunt-Liv. See Pleonasm.

8. Gnome is a general sentiment properly introduced: as, Im-

bellium est, verbis non armis, bellum gerere.

9. Noema is an elegant application of such a sentiment to a particular purpose: as, Athenienses guidem literis verbisque bellum ad-

versus Philippum gerebant-Liv.

10. Epitheton, or Epithet, is an adjective joined elegantly to a substantive, for the purpose of expressing some peculiar circumstance: as, Arma diu senior desueta trementibus ævo Circumdat nequicquam humeris et inutile ferrum Cingitur-Virg.

3. For Amplification.

1. Incrementum is an amplification without a strict climax, rising or decreasing in terms of increasing energy: as, Facinus est vincire civem Romanum; scelus verberare; prope parricidium necare; quid dicam in crucem tollere?—Cic.

2. Synonymia uses different words, or forms of expression, having the same import: as, Quem si fata virum servant, si vescitur aura Ætherea, neque adhuc crudelibus occubat umbris-Virg.

for if he liveth.

3. Paralipsis pretends to omit a charge, in order, thereby, to render it more observed; as, Nonne etiam alio incredibili scelere hoc scelus cumulasti? quod ego prætermitto et facilè patior sileri; ne in hac civitate tanti facinoris immanitus aut extitisse aut non vindicata esse videatur-Cic.

4. Periphrasis uses many words in description, where fewer would be sufficient, often expressing an object by circumstances; as, Fabricator mundi, for Deus. I must put off this tabernacle-2 Pet. i. 14. that is, I must die. Et jam summa procul villarum culmina fumant, Majoresque cadunt altis de montibus umbræ-Virg. for it is near sunset.

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5. Paradigma draws a comparison from some historical example: as, Saxa et solitudines voci respondent; bestiæ sæpe immanes cantu flectuntur atque consistunt: nos instituti rebus optimis non poëtarum voce moveamur?—Cic.

6. Parabola, or Simile, enforces an argument by a judicious comparison: as, Repente enim te, tanquam serpens e latibulis, oculis

eminentibus, inflato collo, tumidis cervicibus, intulisti-Cic.

7. Merismus, or Epimerismus, instead of mentioning the whole, enumerates the parts: as, Senatus odit te; videre te equites Romani non possunt; plebs Romana perditum cupit: Italia cuncta exsecratur—Cic.

8. Diaphora illustrates by comparing or contrasting things unlike: as, Dissimilis est pecuniæ debitio et gratiæ: nam qui pecuniam dissolvit, statim non habet id, quod reddidit; qui autem debet, is retinet alienum: gratiam autem et qui refert, habet; et qui habet, in eo ipso quod habet, refert—Cic.

4. Pathetic Figures.

1. Erotesis, or Interrogation, asks a question in an earnest or urgent manner: as, Creditis avectos hostes? aut ulla putatis Dona carere dolis Danaûm? sic notus Ulysses?—Virg.

2. Ecphonesis, or Exclanation, shows some violent transport of the mind: as, My God! My God! why hast thou forsaken me?—

Matth. xxvii. 46. O tempora! O mores!

3. Epanorthosis, or Correction, recalls a word, in order to place a stronger or more significant one in its stead: as, Filium unicum adolescentulum habeo: ah! quid dixi? me habere? Imo habui—Ter.

4. Aposiopesis, or Suppression, leaves the sentence unfinished, through some violent agitation of mind: as, Quos ego—sed præ-

stat motos componere fluctus-Virg.

5. Epiphonema, or Acclamation, is a grave reflection on something said before: as, Tantæne animis cælestibu siræ?—Virg. Tan-

tum Relligio potuit suadere malorum !- Lucret.

6. Anacomosis, or Communication, is, when, relying on the expediency or merits of the cause, a forcible appeal is made to the adversary's own conscience: as, Si vos in eo loco essetis, quid aliud fecissetis—Cic.

7. Aporia doubts what is to be said or done: as, Quos accedam, aut quos appellem? Nationesne an reges—Sall. Revocat; redeam? non, si me obsecret—Ter. When a Figure thus objects and answers, it is said to be in Dialogismo; otherwise in Logismo. Aporia is sometimes named Diaporesis.

8. Apostrophe, or Aversio, is, when, to excite strong attention, the narrative is interrupted by an appeal suddenly made to some person or thing: as, Vi potitur: Quid non mortalia cogis, Auri sa-

cra fames—Virg.

9. Prosopopæia, or Personification, represents inanimate objects as living and speaking. Thus Ovid introduces the Earth saying to

Jupiter, Hosne mihi fructus, hunc fertilitatis honorem, Officiique refers, &c. According to this figure, an absent person may be introduced speaking, or one who is dead, as if he were alive and present. This and the preceding figure are sometimes conjoined: as, Trojaque nunc stares; Priamique arx alta maneres—Virg.

Other figures, less common, and of inferior note, might be enumerated; instead of which a few general remarks shall be added, on the beauties and blemishes of style.

1. Purity of style is violated chiefly by a Barbarism or a Solecism. Barbarism is the use of a word not Latin; as stavi instead of steti, the preterite of sto. Solecism is a construction contrary to the rules of syntax; as, Acuta gladius: Faveo te: Scribo.cum calamo. It is further violated by Archaism, Neoterism, and Idiotism. Archaism is the use of obsolete words or constructions; and has been already noticed. Neoterism is the use of words or phrases not used by authors living in the best ages of Latinity; as breviarium instead of summarium; usualis for solitus or vulgaris: Plenum vino: Adulari aliquem. Idiotism is the use of words or phrases not purely Latin, but conformable to the usage or idioms of other languages.

2. Perspicuity of language requires that it should be clear and intelligible, and free from ambiguity and amphibology in words and construction; such as Heri filius ad me venit.—Aio te, Æaci-

da, Romanos vincere posse.

3. Equality of language consists in using neither more nor fewer words than the subject requires. When the same thing is repeated in different words, this error is called Tautology: as, Ipse egomet venio. Where a superfluous addition is made, it is called Perissology: as, Ibant quà poterant; quà non poterant non ibant. Tapinosis is saying less than the subject requires: as, Saxea verrucca in summo montis vertice.

4. Propriety uses suitable words. This is violated by Acyrologia or Catachresis; as sperare for timere, in Juvenal, Jam quartanam sperantibus ægris. Vir gregis ipse caper—Virg. vir being

applicable only to the human species.

5. Harmony consists in the use of such letters and syllables as are grateful to the ear. This is destroyed by Cacophaton or the disagreeable position or repetition of letters; as conlaudo for collaudo. Sola mihi tales casus Cassandra canebat—Virg. in which ca is thrice repeated; and by Cacosyntheton, or a bad arrangement of the words: as, Versaque juvencûm Terga fatigamus hasta—Virg.

6. Simplicity consists in the avoiding of affectation. It is opposed by Cacozelia, or an excessive desire of elegance; as in Aureus axis crat, temo aureus, aurea summæ Curvatura rotæ, radio-

rum argenteus ordo-Ovid.

OF PROSODY.

PROSODY is defined to be that part of Grammar, which treats of the quantity of Syllables¹; of their tone or accent; and of Versification.

THE QUANTITY OF SYLLABLES.

By the quantity of a syllable is meant, the duration or continuance of the voice, in pronouncing it.

A syllable is either short, long, or common.

A short syllable is sounded rapidly, like the a in the English word orator, or the e in the Latin word legere; and is thus marked, orator, legere.

A long syllable is pronounced slowly, and occupies twice the time used in pronouncing a short one, as in the α of the English word *mediator*, or of the Latin word *orator*; and

is thus marked, mediator, orator.

A common or doubtful syllable may be made long or short, at the option of the poet, as in the first syllable of patres, or the middle syllable of tenebræ and volucris, which are pronounced either pătres or pātres; teněbræ or tenēbræ; volucris or volucris: and when they are marked as common

¹ The quantity of syllables merits the chief attention. The accents are little attended to, being now used chiefly in a way, in which they denote the distinction of words, or the difference of quantities, rather than variation of tone; but the common rules for placing them will hereafter be given. The question has been much agitated lately, whether Latin poetry should be read chiefly according to quantity, or accent; and it is as yet very far from being determined. Some, however, seem in favour of reading by quantity; while others, perhaps not without reason, incline to the opinion, that quantity may be observed, without the utter neglect of accents, the observance of which, they contend, produced, both in the Greek and Roman languages, the same metrical effect as those prominent syllables (which are commonly called accented) do in the English language, and in other modern languages. But, as Quintillian observes of accents, Exempla eorum tradi scripto non possunt.

or doubtful, it is done by a conjunction of the two preceding marks, thus—pātres, tenēbræ, volūcris. In prose, however, these are short.

The quantity of a syllable is either natural, that is, dependent on the intrinsic nature of the vowel itself, as the re of resisto, in which the e is short by nature; or accidental, as the re in restiti, which becomes long, because it happens to be followed by two consonants.

The quantity of syllables is determined by certain established rules, or, when they fail, by the authority of the poets.

Rules are either General, that is, applicable to all syllables, whether first, middle, or last; or Special, that is, applicable to particular syllables.

GENERAL RULES.

RULE I.

A VOWEL BEFORE A VOWEL.

A vowel before another (or, which is the same thing, before an h followed by a vowel, or before a diphthong) in words of Latin origin, is short: as, puer, nihil, egregiæ.

O Melibœe, deus nobis hæc otia fecit—Virg. De nihilo nihil, in nihilum nil posse reverti—Pers. Ipse etiam cximiæ laudis succensus amore—Virg.

Exceptions.

1. The *i* of *fio* is long, when it is not followed by *e* and r; as $f\bar{\imath}unt$, $f\bar{\imath}ebant$.

Omnia jam *f ient*, *f ieri* quæ posse negabam—Ovid.

2. The *e* of the genitive and dative of the fifth declension, when it comes between double *i*, is long; as *faciēi*.

Ventum erat ad Vesta quarta jam parte diēi—Hor. It is sometimes found long, when not preceded by i; as Ipsius rēi rationem reddere possis—Lucret.

Ille vir haud magnâ cum re, sed plenu' fidēi—Ennius. These cases were probably written either e - i or ci - i;

hence the different quantities.

In some lines it is long, when, by the general rule, it should be short;

Injurium est, nam si esset, unde id fieret,
Faceremus.

Ter.

3. The *i* is common in genitives in *ius*; but the *i* of *alterius* is always short, of *alius* always long ¹.

Unius ob noxam, et furias Ajacis, Oilei—Virg. Navibus (infandum!) amissis, unius ob iram—Virg.

4. The penultimate (or last syllable but one) is long in aurui, aulai, terrai, and other old genitives of the first declension; and the a or e before i is long in proper names in aius or cius, as Caius, Pompeius (probably written originally with a double i), as also in Graius, Veius, &c.

Æthereum sensum, atque aurāi simplicis ignem—Virg. Accipe, Pompēi, deductum carmen ab illo—Ovid.

Pervigil in plumâ Căiŭs, ecce, jacet-Mart.

5. Aër, Dius, eheu, and, in general, Io, a proper name, have the first syllable long. Ohe and the interjection io have their first common.

Proximus est āër illi levitate, locoque—Ovid.

si candida jusserit 10—Juv.

Ohe! jam satis est, ŏhe, libelle—Mart.

Quæ tibi causa fugæ? quid, Ĭo, freta longa pererras?— Ovid.

For Greek words it is impossible to give a certain rule. In many the first vowel is short; as in Danäë, iděa, sophĭa, Simŏis, Hyades, prosodĭa, symphonĭa. In many it is long;

as in Lycdon, Sperchius, Achelous, Engo.

1. Words ending in ais, cis, and ois, generally lengthen the first vowel, as Nāis, Brisēis, Minōis; in aius, cius, and oius, as Grāius, Cāius, Nerēius, Pompēius, Minōius, Trōius; in aon and ion, as Machāon, Ixīon; the compounds of λαὸς, as Lāodice, Lāertes, Archelāus. But Thebăis, Phăon, Aon, Deucalion, Pygmalion, and many others, shorten the former vowel. In Nerèis, Orion and Geryon it is said to be common; but Orīon is long, although, in Greek, sometimes short. Geryon is short.

Trōius Æneas Libycis ereptus ab undis—Virg.

2. Greek genitives in cos, and accusatives in ca, from nominatives in cus, generally shorten the e; as, Orpheos, Orphea, but these may be lengthened by the Ionic dialect, thus Orpheos, Orphea, Ilionea.

1 Solius, alterutrius, and neutrius are said to be generally long in approved authors. For alīus, see R. IV. There is a sufficient reason for the long quantity of alius, but I know of none for the constant short quantity of alterius. It occurs long in Terent. Maurus, and Ennius, and is probably common, like the others. But alterius would be inadmissible in a dactylic verse.

Ilionëa petit dextra - - - - - - - - - Virg. Idomenëa ducem - - - - - - - - - Virg.

3. Those words which, in the Greek language, are written with η or ω , are long; as $D\bar{e}iphobus$, $D\bar{e}ianira$, $Tr\bar{o}es$, $her\bar{o}icus$, &c. Eos and eous have their first common, because written either with η or ε ; and are generally long at the beginning of a line, and short at the end.

Deiphobum vidit lacerum crudeliter ora-Virg.

Portus ab coo fluctu - - - - Virg. - - - - gentes aperi-

mus ĕoas-Lucan.

4. Those words which, in Greek, are written with ei before a vowel, and in Latin with e or i, have the e or i long; as, Ænēas, Cassiopēa, Cytharēa, Centaurēa, Penelopēa, Galatēa, Laodicēa, Medēa, Mausolēum. Also, Basilīus, Darlus, Clīo, Elegīa, litanīa, politīa, &c. Chorea, platēa, Malēa, canopēum, Dīana, and perhaps academīa, are common.

There are no rules for the quantities of foreign or barbarous words introduced into the Latin language. Prudentius lengthens the first a in Baal, Sedulius shortens it. Sidonius lengthens the penultimate of Abraham, Arator shortens it. The a in ael of Israel, Michael, Raphael, is sometimes long and sometimes short.

RULE II.

A VOWEL BEFORE TWO CONSONANTS.

A vowel before two consonants, one or both of which are in the same word with it, or before any of the double consonants j^1 , x, z, being likewise in the same word with the vowel, is long by Position; as $\bar{a}rma$, $Errab\bar{a}t$ silva in $m\bar{a}g$ -na; $\bar{a}xis$, patrizo; $c\bar{u}jus$.

In reality, in such cases, j is a vowel, and, with the preceding vowel, constitutes a diphthong; thus $m\overline{ai}$ -oribus. In the same manner, arises the quantity of such words as $\bar{e}jus$ and $p\bar{e}jus$, which, according to Priscian, the antients wrote eius and peiius; thus $ei-\bar{u}s$, $p\bar{e}i-\bar{u}s$, one of the is being elided, or supposed to be elided, in the pronunciation. In rejicio, too, the e is considered long, the j uniting with it, so as to form a diphthong, $r\bar{e}i$ -icio. When j stands at the beginning of a word, it has no power of lengthening a short final vowel. Even in jurejurando, the e is short, this being in fact two distinct words. (See the following note.)

Păscere oportet oves, dedăctum dicere cărmen—Virg. Nēc myrtăs vincet corylos, nec, laurea Phœbi—Virg. Indomitique Dahæ, et pontem indignatus Arāxes—Virg. Nobilibus gāzis, opibusque cubilia surgant—Cl. Nate dea, nam te mājoribus ire per altum—Virg. Ut jugulent homines, surgunt de nocte latrones—Hor.

Exceptions.

1. The compounds of jugum have the i short before j; as bijugus, quadrijugus.

Martis equi bijuges, et magni currus Achillis—Virg. Quadrijugo vehitur curru, cui tempora circum—Virg.

Annotations.

1. If the former word ends in a short vowel, the next word beginning with two consonants, or a double consonant (x or z), the vowel often remains short.

Tu poteras virides pennis hebetare smaragdos—Ovid. Jam medio apparet fluctu nemorosă 2 Zacynthus—Virg.

These words were formerly written biugus and quadriugus, the j being the same as i, whence also ajo, and, as Cicero is reported to have written it, aiio, instead of aio; and one of the is being elided, or supposed to be elided, for the sake of the sound, there remains bugus; or the j being sounded, as it is by the Germans and other adjacent nations, like our y before a vowel in the same syllable, the word becomes bi-yugus, in the same way as, in English, opi-ni-on becomes opin yon. The Spaniards write, mayor, for major, greater; and in English we have also mayor from major; they likewise write yugo for jugum, a yoke; but the

y they pronounce in a way peculiar to themselves.

The rule has been controverted, in cases where any of the following consonantal combinations in the beginning of a word follows a short vowel, namely, sc, sp, sq, or st. Numerous examples, however, occur, in which the final short vowel before these combinations continues short: thus, in Horace, præmiå scribæ; malå stultitiæ; mih Stertinius; velatumquë stola; sæpë stylum vertas; in Ovid, curvaminë spinæ; considerë scamnis; olentiå stagna; tuå stat; inamabilë stridet, &c. But it is observed that many of these examples are removed by better readings given in MSS. and editions; and that the doctrine of syllables remaining short before s, and another consonant, is not confirmed by unquestionable authority. The line

Ponite: spes sibi quisque; sed hæc, quam angusta, videtis-

Æn. xi. 309.

is rejected by the ablest writers, as an interpolation. Virgil, however, who has adopted such licenses as fultūs Hyacintho; an quǐ amant, quē enclitic, has lengthened the short syllable but in one line,

OF A VOWEL BEFORE A MUTE AND A LIQUID.

2. A vowel naturally short, followed by a mute and a li-

Ferte citi ferrum, date telā, scandite muros. Many of those short vowels which are found long before two consonants beginning the following word, are lengthened by Cæsura; as in

Occul-tā spolia, et plures de pace triumphos-Juv.

It is, however, the opinion of several respectable critics, that, if the two consonants be at the beginning of the following word, the preceding vowel is long: although the poets have frequently neglected the rule. In the writings of the antients, instances of violation are comparatively rare, although it must be allowed that the balance of actual practice seems against the rule; while in modern poetry, the syllable is generally found short. Mr. Burgess, in his edition of Dawes's Miscellanea Critica, has laid down the rule, "Quotiescumque ultima, quæ brevis sit, vocabuli præcedentis, partem ejusdem cum st, sp, sc, &c. pedis constituat, toties eam esse longam, nisi in scriptis comicis iisque quæ sermoni propiora sunt." Hence, we may infer that, if the preceding short syllable terminate a foot, it may remain short; and if it do not terminate a foot, it becomes long, except in scriptis comicis &c. This is, perhaps, generally correct; it must, however, be observed, that Horace, Ennius, and Propertius, furnish examples in which the vowel remains short, although it does not terminate a foot; a circumstance which tends to sanction the opinion of those who are inclined to think, that the initial s and a consonant have the same power over a preceding short vowel, as a mute and a liquid have over a preceding short vowel in the body of a word, that is, that they render it common. It is very evident, from a collection of the examples involving the collocation in question, (see Nos. 1 and 2 of the Classical Journal.) that even among the antient poets, as Lucretius, Propertius, Horace, Ovid, Seneca, &c., the vowel is oftener found short than long. That, however, in many of those instances, the sound of the s was suppressed, is very probable; indeed, in a line from Lucretius, terminating with miscere smaragdos, some MSS. have maragdos. Reasoning from analogy, and the authority of those poets, who, unless in their sermoni propiora, have but seldom or never introduced the final short syllable before s and another consonant, it is thought that there are good grounds for considering a vowel to be long before the two consonants, whether in the same word, or in the next; although, in the composition of verses, it may, perhaps, be expedient, considering the diversity of opinion on this disputable point, to avoid the latter collocation altogether. Lucretius, who shortens the vowel, it is said, was perhaps compelled, by the nature of his subject, to take the utmost liberty he could at all defend, and was afterwards followed by Horace in the sermoni propiora. But, in the Odes, we see nothing of the kind, nor is the practice in the least degree sancquid, both in the following syllable, is common; as a-gris, phare-tra.

Et primo similis volŭeri, mox vera volūeris—Ovid.

tioned by Catullus or Virgil. These are the three greatest authorities in Roman verse. Propertius is, perhaps, of inferior authority. Tibullus shortens the vowel, only before sm, in smaragdos, in which probably the s was dropt in writing or in pronunciation. Virgil has not admitted the short vowel in his Georgics. In the Æneid, it occurs but once (Ponite: spes sibi quisque), in a line which has been deemed corrupt. Horrida squamosi in his Culex, (if indeed he was its author,) and nist Scylla in his Ciris, two early attempts, have not much weight. Catullus, in but one solitary instance, undă Scamandri, has violated the law, by following Homer. The name, however, is written Kauarδρος in ancient Greek MSS. Several instances occur in Ovid, of the short vowel; but it may be observed, that some of them admit. and have received, different readings. It is worthy of remark, too, that in compound words, sc, sp, st, have the power of lengthening a preceding short vowel; as rescindo, respuo, restinguo. We shall only add, that neither the letter s, nor the liquid m, seems to have been considered, by the Roman poets, so firm and indissoluble a consonant as the rest. The former was frequently elided by the earlier poets, not only before a vowel, but even before a consonant. The syllable that terminates with the latter, almost always falls before a vowel. Although, in Greek, examples of final short vowels lengthened before & and & are numerous, it is difficult to find an unquestionable example, in Latin, of such a circumstance; but x and z may have possessed such a power. Where a short vowel occurs before these letters, the sound may have been softened, or they may have been pronounced like d: thus, Danthus for Xanthus; Dacynthus for Xacynthus. The rule for lengthening the final short vowel before s and another consonant, is rigidly enforced in some of our public schools, and in others totally disregarded. Little or no attention, I believe, is paid to it at the universities of Oxford and Cambridge; nor has it been observed by the modern poets of England, Holland, Germany, or Italy. And if we consider the few examples in which we find the syllable short in antient poetry, compared with those of modern occurrence, and the still smaller number in which it is lengthened, there seems reason to conclude, that the antients, in general, studiously avoided the collocation. Virgil, it is observed, does not, like Horace, employ the word scelestus, but sceleratus; which, it has been thought, he would have done, if he would not have been compelled to place a short syllable before it: but a different reason might be assigned. In conclusion, we would observe, that, influenced solely by the unquestionable preponderance of instances in which the vowel occurs short, even after all the disputed lines are excluded, and taking into consideration, that the practice is sanctioned by almost all the best moNatum ante ora pătris, pātrem qui obtruncat ad aras— Virg.

Et vos agrestum præsentia numina Fauni—Virg. inter agrestia regem—Virg.

dern poets, we might be justified in considering the vowel before st &c. as generally short. Reasoning, however, chiefly from the delay naturally produced by two such unvielding consonants, if both are distinctly sounded, and relying on the confirmatory authority of the few undisputed examples in which the vowel occurs long, we might be inclined to deem a vowel, so situated, long, and combining the two preceding conclusions, the general inference would be, that, as the vowel is found sometimes short, and sometimes long, it should be regarded as common. But judging from the comparatively rare and limited occurrence of the collocation in question, in the writings of the antient poets, I have little hesitation to say, that it should be avoided, if not altogether, yet as much as possible. Many interesting observations on the subject of this Note, and, it needs scarcely be added, on every subject connected with classical literature, may be found in the Classical Journal. See also some ingenious remarks on this question, in Dr. Carey's valuable treatise on Latin Prosody.

¹ It is, however, short in prose. To produce this kind of position, which is reckoned weak (dcbilis), and is not to be used without some limitation, three things are necessary. 1. That the mute precede the liquid. 2. That the mute and the liquid be both in the following syllable; or otherwise, this rule cannot take place; as in āb-luo, ōb-ruo, in which the a and o, short by nature, are made long by the usual rule of position, and cannot be made short. 3. That the vowel preceding the mute and liquid be short by nature; for, if it is long, it cannot be made short. Hence the a in ācris, and mātris, is always long, because the a in ācer, and māter, is long. In like manner, the penultimate of sa-lūbris, and ambulācrum, is always long, because they are derived

from salūs, salūtis; and ambulātum, both long.

L and r are the only liquids found in Latin words preceded by a vowel and a mute. L, r, and also m, n, have the same force in Greek words, when the preceding vowel is naturally short; as Cyclopes, pharetra, Te-cmessa, Da-phne.

Pars læves humero pharětras, it pectore summo—Virg. Virginibus Tyriis mos est gestare pharětram—Virg. Et baccis redimita dăphne, tremulæque cupressus—Pet. Primus amor Phæbi Dāphne Peneïa, quem non—Ovid.

Martial has imitated the Greeks in shortening a syllable before gd, Sardonychas, smarăgdos, adamantas, iaspidas uno.

This rule, as has been already mentioned, is to be followed with some degree of limitation. Vossius has observed, that he would not be inclined to lengthen the penultimate of genitrix.

RULE III.

OF DIPHTHONGS.

A diphthong is long in Latin and Greek words: as, aurum, fænus, Æneas, Eubæa, Harpyia 1.

And it may be seen, from some of the examples which have been given, that words of three syllables, as volucris, pharetra, tenebræ, having the first short, and the middle deemed common, never have their penultimate long but at the end of a line.--It may likewise, be observed, that words of three syllables, as agrestes, cyclopes, &c., having the first common, and the second long, seldom have the first short but at the end of a line; thus, miseratus agrestes-Virg. -- Such words as tonitrua, tonitribus, and ludibria, have the antepenultimate long in the latter part of a line; as tonitrua mentes—Ovid. ludibria ventis—Virg. Indeed, the two first could not be admitted into any part of a heroic line without a long antepenult, and in them the emphasis also tends to strengthen the doubtful syllable. Ovid and Virgil generally make the first syllable of lacryma short; Horace, common. Lugubris is generally long, but is made short by Horace at the end of a lyric verse. Ludicra has generally the penult short. Patris and some others may perhaps be varied in any part of a line. Catullus sometimes lengthens a final short syllable followed by a mute and a liquid; but this is a liberty very rarely used, without the influence of the Cæsura.

These is nothing arbitrary in the principle which regulates the quantity of a short vowel before a mute and a liquid. When the liquid precedes the mute, it requires a distinct, full sound, and thus, the syllable is rendered long; as fert. When, too, the mute precedes the liquid, and they are in different syllables, the liquid acquires, from this circumstance, a more marked, distinct pronunciation, so as to render the preceding vowel long; as sūbruo. But when, as in the terms of the rule, the mute precedes the liquid in the same syllable, the latter glides or trills so rapidly in the pronunciation, that a preceding vowel, short by nature, although it may be rendered somewhat longer than a short one, still remains rather shorter than a long one. As, therefore, its length, comparatively considered, seems to be equally remote from a short and a long quantity, it may in poetry be referred to cither; in other words, be deemed common. When the vowel was lengthened, probably the two consonants were sounded in different syllables; as pat ris, instead of pa-tris. - It should be remarked, that the letter f, though commonly accounted a semivowel, has, when followed by a liquid, the same influence as a mute, upon a preceding short syllable; that is, the syllable most commonly remains short. Vossius and Alvarus seem inclined to consider it as a mute.

But u and a vowel following q, are not to be considered as a

Thesauros, ignotum argenti pondus et auri—Virg. Infernique lacus, \overline{E} aæque insula Circes—Virg. Miratur molem \overline{E} neas, magalia quondam—Virg. Euridicenque suam jam tuto respicit Orpheus—Ovid. Et patrio insontes \overline{H} arpyias pellere regno—Virg.

Exceptions.

1. Præ in composition is short before a vowel; as præ-ustus, præeunte, præacutus.

Stipitibus duris agitur, sudibusve *prăustis*—Virg. Nec tota tamen ille prior *prăeunte* carina—Virg.

2. A diphthong is once short in a line of Virgil, out of composition: thus,

Insulæ Ionio in magno, quas dira Celæno.

diphthong falling within the rule; for in such combinations, the latter vowel, if short, remains so; as quater, queror, quibus, quotus, equus, dissyllables. Some have supposed that the u following q is a liquid consonant; others, with more truth, that it becomes a mute vowel, or is a liquid vowel, which glides so rapidly into the sound of the following vowel, as scarcely to be perceptible in the pronunciation; and that it does not form a diphthong with the following vowel, because it has little or no force as a letter in verse. Amittit vim literæ in metro, says Priscian; which made Donatus believe, that, strictly speaking, it is neither vowel nor consonant. After g and s, it seems also to be generally liquid or evanescent, as in anguis, sanguis, lingua, suetus, suadet, dissyllables. Sometimes it retains its full force, as in exiguus, suus. It has even been omitted in some words, as in stingo for stinguo; ungo for unguo; cum for quum, qu having, probably, been formerly sounded, in some instances at least, like the letter k, as in the French language.

This is inaccurately expressed in the short sketch of Prosody in the Eton Grammar; and from it, the inaccuracy has been copied into many other grammars. "Omnis diphthongus longa est, nisi sequente vocali," should be nisi præ, sequente vocali. For as the rule now stands, a solitary exception is made the basis of a general exception to one of the most general rules of prosody.—

The diphthong in præ is, however, long in

Præmia cum vacuus domino præiret Arion—Stat. Theb. 6. The æ in præ is supposed to have become short, from an elision of one of the component vowels; or it may have arisen from the same cause through which the diphthong in Mæotis, and in one or two other words, is deemed common, viz, from the corruption, in sound, of æ (ae or ai) and æ (oe or oi) originally proper diphthongs, into e; owing to which circumstance they are now termed improper.

This seems to be in imitation of the Greeks, who, generally, shorten a diphthong, or a long vowel at the end of a word, the following beginning with a vowel.

RULE IV.

OF CRASIS, OR CONTRACTION.

Every syllable formed by the contraction of two syllables into one, is long; as $c\bar{o}go$ for $c\check{o}\check{a}go$, the genitive $al\bar{\iota}us$ for $al\check{\iota}\check{\iota}us$.

Tityre *cōge* pecus, tu post carecta latebas—Virg. Obscuræ sortis patres *ambāgibus* errant—Ovid.

SPECIAL RULES.

OF THE FIRST SYLLABLE, AND OF MIDDLE SYLLABLES.

RULE I.

OF DERIVATIVES.

Derivatives, and words formed from other words, have the same quantity as the words whence they come: thus ămicus, păvidus, ăvitus, from ămo, păveo, ăvus; māternus,

This is a rule of very extensive application, as well in prose as in poetry. We are told that the antients expressed a long syllable, by two vowels; thus věčnit, for věnit, the preterite; and it will be found, that, in many words, the long syllable arises from the contraction of two vowels. Thus, we write tibīcen instead of tibiīcen; ambāges for ambĕāges; nōnus for nŏvēnus; bīgæ, trīgæ, &c., for bijūgæ, trijūgæ; jūnior for jūvēnior; bōbus for bŏvibus; īt for iīt; and sometimes vēmens for věhčmens; mī for mǐhī, &c.; and in joining words, as mālo for māgīs vŏlo. But some final syllables, probably contracted at an early period, remain short; such as sīt from siĕt, amāt from amāit. Perhaps, however, in such instances, instead of contraction, one vowel may have been removed, and the other made to conform to the usual analogy.

Syncope, Crasis, and Synæresis may be thus distinguished. Syncope takes a letter or syllable from the middle of a word, without affecting the remaining letters. Crasis contracts two vowels, in the same word, or from different words, into one vowel; Synæresis (which will be hereafter explained), two vowels in the same word, into one syllable. The former of these two is applicable to prose and poetry; the latter, chiefly to poetry.

nātivus, finitimus, from māter, nātus, finis; legebam, legerem, le

Exceptions.

1. Desiderative verbs, in *urio*, have the u short, although formed from the participle in *urus*, which has u long; as $nupt \check{u} rio$, from $nupt \check{u} rus^1$.

Parturiunt montes, nascetur ridiculus mus—Hor.

2. Frequentative verbs, formed from the second supine of the first conjugation, by changing ātu into ĭto, have the i short; as clamito, volito.

Infelix sua tecta super volitaverit alis-Virg.

3. There are other derivatives, long, formed from short primitives; and there are short derivatives, formed from long primitives; thus jūgerum from jūgum, sūgax from sāgio.

Et labefacta movens robustus jūgera fossor—Virg. Arva aliena jūgo premere, atque avertere prædas—Virg.

1 Other verbs in urio, as ligūrio and scatūrio, lengthen the u.

They were antiently written with a double r.

³ Some of those anomalies have perhaps arisen from the influence of syncope and crasis. Thus, mobilis from moveo may have been movibilis; momentum, movimentum; motum, movitum; fotum, fovitum, from foveo; jūtum, jūvātum; and jūmentum, jūvāmentum, from juvo. It would appear, however, that verbals in bilis, as well as those in tilis, and nouns in ator, atrum, atus, etus, men, mentum, &c., are generally formed from the supine or perfect participle, and that by this their quantity is regulated; thus from amātum, amābilis; volātum, volātilis; flētum, flēbilis; territum, terribilis; stătum, of sisto, stăbilis; in the same way we have arator, arātrum, apparātus, certāmen, jūmentum, volūmen, lenīmen, irritamentum, monumentum or monumentum, alimentum, blandimentum; also fomes, from fotum, &c. Derivatives often come from the genitive; as from hymen, enis, hymenæus; from salūtis, salūber; from funëris, funëbris; from muliëris, muliëbris, &c., the derivatives from increasing nouns of the third declension usually agreeing in quantity with the increment of the primitives. Verbs also; as ordino, salūto, exhærēdo, &c. Sometimes the word derived, or formed, becomes short, by dropping one of the consonants which rendered the word whence it is supposed to come, long by position; as disertus from dissero; libella from libra; mămilla from māmma; võlutum from võlvo; sõlutum from sõlvo; tigillum from tignum; potui from possum. When the primitive

RULE II.

COMPOUND WORDS.

Compound words have the same quantity as the simple words of which they are compounded: as perlego and relego, because lego; perlegi and relegi, because lego; impro-

bus, because probus; perjūrus, because jūs, jūris.

If a vowel is changed, in forming the compound, it retains the quantity of the vowel, or diphthong, from which it is changed; as concido, from cădo; concido from cado; inīquus from aquus.

Multa renascentur, quæ jam cecidere ; cădentque-Hor.

Taurus, et averso cedens canis occidit astro-Virg.

Exceptions.

1. The following are short compounds from long primitives; Nihilum from hilum; dejëro and pejëro from jūro; veridicus, fatidicus, causidicus, and the like, from dīco; semisopitus from sōpitus; cognītum and agnītum from nōtum; innūba, subnūba, and pronūba, from nūbo.

Quæ causa officii? quid quæris? nūbit amicus—Juv. Et Bellona manet te pronŭba: nec face tantum—Virg.

2. Imbēcillus, said to come from băcillus, has the second syllable long. Ambītum the supine, and ambītus the participle, have the i long, although coming from itum, which has

is necessarily short, by one vowel's preceding another, as in $h\check{y}ems$, the derivative sometimes becomes long, after the removal of a vowel; as in $h\check{z}berna$, $h\check{z}berna$, $h\check{z}berna$, $h\check{z}berna$ cula. Liquidus is supposed to have its first common, (as it may be derived from the deponent verb $l\check{z}quor$, or from the neuter, $l\check{z}queo$,) on the following authority:

Crassaque conveniunt l'iquidis, et liquida crassis—Lucret.

For the difference in quantity between many derivatives and their primitives no plausible conjecture can be given; such anomalies must be left to observation. Of this description are some of the following; Ambitus (subst.), ambitio, ambitiosus from ambitum; ărena from āreo; ăruspex from āra; dicax from dīco; lūcerna from lūceo; năto, nătas, from nātu; sŏpor from sōpio; vădum from vādo, &c. Chīus from chĭos; cōmo, -is, from coma, hair; hūmanus from hŏmo; rēgina, rex, rēgis, rēgula, from rĕgo; sēcitis from sĕcus; sēdes, sēdile, from sĕdeo; tēgula from tĕgo; vox, vōcis, from vŏco, &c. Words may be sometimes distinguished by a difference in quantity; thus cōmo, -is, cŏmo, -as; duco, dūcis, dux, dūcis; rego, rĕgis, rex, rēgis.

the i short; but the substantives ambitus and ambitio have the i short, like itum!

Porto meis, nullo dextram subeunte băcillo—Juv. Imbēcillus, iners, si quid vis? adde propino—Hor. Jussit et ambītæ circumdare litora terræ—Ov.

Et properantis aquæ per amœnos ambitus agros-Hor.

3. Connubium, from nūbo, has the u common ...
Connubio jungam stabili, propriamque dicabo—Virg.
Hectoris Andromache! Pyrrhin' connūbia servas—Virg.

RULE III.

OF PREPOSITIONS IN COMPOSITION.

Prepositions have generally the same quantity in composition as out of it: thus $\bar{a}mitto$ and $d\bar{e}duco$ have the first syllable long, because \bar{a} and $d\bar{e}$ are long. Aboleo and $p\bar{e}r$ -imo have the first short, because $\bar{a}b$ and $p\bar{e}r$ are short.

Expediam, prima repetens *ăb* origine, famam—Virg. Nec poterit ferrum, nec edax *ăbolere* vetustas—Ovid.

Exceptions and Annotations.

1. A preposition ending in a vowel, although out of composition it may be long, becomes short by the first general rule, if followed by another vowel; as deosculor, prohibeo. And if a short preposition end in a consonant, and be followed by another consonant, it becomes long, by the second general rule; as ādmitto, pērcello.

 $D\tilde{e}$ cœlo tactas memini prædicere quercus—Virg. Λ media cœlum regione $d\tilde{e}hiscere$ cœpit—Ovid.

Note. Sometimes the preposition, instead of becoming long by position, loses its final consonant, and remains short; as ŏmitto, ŏperio.

Quod petiit spernit, repetit quod nuper omisit—Hor.

2. Pro, when used as a Greek preposition, for ante, is short; as propheta, prologus, propontis: but pro, a Latin preposition, is generally long; as prodo, proveho, promitto.

¹ Ambitum perhaps by crasis of ambĕ itum. Or it may come from the regular ambio, ambītum, formed from ambi the old form of the inseparable am, still visible in ambidexter; and there may

have been also ambeo, ambitum a compound of co.

² It is contended by some that the u is always long, and that *connubio* and *connubiis*, although supposed to have u short in Virgil, are to be considered as trisyllables, by the figure Synizesis or Synecphonesis; thus $c\bar{o}n$ - $n\bar{u}b$ - $y\bar{o}$; in which case the first foot becomes a sponder instead of a dactyl.

furtumque Promethei—Virg.

Quæ tam festa dies, ut cesset prodere furem—Juv. But in many Latin words pro is short; as profundus, profugio, profugus, pronepos, proneptis, profestus, profari, profueor, profanus, profecto, procus, procella, proterous, propero, and propago, signifying lineage; but propago signifying a vinestock, is long!

Contremuit nemus, et sylvæ intonuere profundæ—Virg. In some it is common; as propino, propago (the verb), profundo, propello, propulso, procuro, Proserpina (in reality a

corruption of Persephone).

3. The inseparable preposition $r\tilde{e}$ is short; as $r\tilde{e}$ mitto, $r\tilde{e}$ pello, $r\tilde{e}$ fero. But $r\tilde{e}$ (which here is supposed to be an ablative) is long in the impersonal verb $r\tilde{e}$ fert, "it concerns."

Quid tamen hoc refert, si se pro classe Pelasga

Arma tulisse refert—Ovid.

Posterius ferri vis est ærisque reperta-Lucret.

4. The inseparable prepositions, se and di, are long; as, separo, diduco, diversus. But di is short in dirimo and disertus.

Sēparat Aönios Actæis Phocis ab arvis—Ovid. Dēversos ubi sensit equos, currumque referri—Virg. Hanc Deus et melior litem natura dĭremit—Ov. In causa facili cuivis licet esse dĭserto—Ov.

Notwithstanding such distinctions propago, whose signification is always essentially the same, may be considered among the doubtfuls; to which class procumbo is likewise added by some, probably, on the authority of Lucretius, who uses it short, IV, 950. But the passage stands differently in Wakefield's edition. As, however, some of the compounds with pro are reckoned long, because it happens that they are found long among the poets; and, for a similar reason, some are reckoned short, and others doubtful, it is not improbable, that, in all compound Latin words, the poets may have used pro, long or short, as it suited their verse.

* Re is sometimes found lengthened, by doubling the following consonant; as in $r\bar{e}lligio$, $r\bar{e}ppulit$: but this duplication is generally omitted, except in the verb $r\bar{e}ddo$, so that $r\bar{e}ligio$, $r\bar{e}liquiæ$, $r\bar{e}liquis$, $r\bar{e}perit$, $r\bar{e}tulit$, $r\bar{e}pulit$, $r\bar{e}ducere$, are found long, and with

only one consonant.

Neu populum antiqua sub rēlligione tueri—Virg. Rēligione patrum multos servata per annos—Virg. Et prius est rēpertum in equi conscendere costas—Lucret. OF THE FINAL VOWELS OF FIRST WORDS IN COMPOSITION.

The vowels E, I, O, U, and Y, ending the first word of a compound, are generally short. A is long.

RULE IV.——A.

Words ending in a in the former part of a compound are long; as quare, quapropter, quatenus; also trā (trāns), as in trādo, trāduco, trāno.

Quāre agite ô proprios generatim discite cultus—Virg.
1. Except eădem, unless it be the ablative, hexămeter, and catăpulta.

RULE V.—E.

Words ending in e in the first part of a compound are short; as, in the first syllable, nĕfas, nĕfastus, nĕfandus, nĕfarius, nĕque; also trĕdecim, trĕcenti, ĕquidem: in the second, valĕdico, madĕfacio, stupĕfacio, tremĕfacio, and the like: in the third, hujuscĕmodi, ejuscĕmodi.

Credebant hoc grande něfas, et morte piandum—Juv. Insolito belli treměfecit murmure Thulen—Claud.

Exceptions.

1. The first is long in words compounded of se for sex or for semi, as sēdecim, sēmestris, sēmodius, (but in sĕlibra it is found short); in nēquis, nēquicquam, nēquam, nēquitia, nēquando, nēmo, crēdo, mēmet, mēcum, tēcum, sēcum; in words compounded of the inseparable preposition se, as sēcedo; and in the second of venēficus and vidēlicet.

Nequicquam seros exercet noctua cantus—Virg.

Note, That liquefacio, tepefacio, tabefacio, and patefacio have their second syllable sometimes long. Rarefacio and rarefio also have the e generally long. Vossius observes that Virgil shortens the e in such words, and that Lucretius and Catullus lengthen it, the former without cæsura. Indeed, it is probable that in these words it was generally considered common.

Sic mea perpetuis *liquĕfiunt* pectora curis—Ovid. Tabe *liquēfactis*, tendens ad sidera palmas—Ov.

Et raréfecit calido miscente vapore—Lucret.

Intremuit, motuque sinus patesecit aquarum—Ovid.

Atque *patēfecit*, quas ante obsederat ater—Lucret. The *e* of *videlicet* may be found short, probably, by poetic license.

RULE VI.---1.

Both Latin and Greek words shorten the final i of the first word of a compound; as omnipotens, bivium, trivium, triceps¹, siquidem, fatidicus, unigenitus, agricola, vaticinium, significo; architectus, dimeter, trimeter, Iphigenia.

Omnipotens genitor, tanton' me crimine dignum—Virg. Archilochi, non res, et agentia verba Lycambem—Hor.

Exceptions.

1. Those compounds in which the i is changed in declining, are long; as $qu\bar{\imath}dam$, $qu\bar{\imath}vis$, $qu\bar{\imath}libet$, &c., $quant\bar{\imath}vis$, $quant\bar{\imath}cunque$, $tant\bar{\imath}dem$, $un\bar{\imath}cuique$, $e\bar{\imath}dem$, $re\bar{\imath}publicæ$, $qual\bar{\imath}cunque$.

Jure mihi invideat $qu\bar{v}is$, ita te quoque amicum—Hor.

2. The final *i* is long in those compounds which may be separated without destroying the sense, that being their regular quantity; as *ludīmagister*, or *ludī magister*; *parvīpendo*, or *parvī pendo*; *lucrīfacio*, or *lucrī facio*; *sīquis*, or *sī quis*: thus also *agrīcultura*.

Ludi-magister, parce simplici turbæ—Martial.

3. Those words which, in joining, undergo a crasis or syncope, are long; as tibīcen, for tibiicen; bīgæ, trīgæ, &c. for byugæ, tryugæ, &c.; ilicet for īre licet; scīlicet for seīre licet; to which add bīmus, trīmus, quadrīmus; but tubīcen, which has suffered neither, is short by the general rule.

Ilicet ignis edax summa ad fastigia vento—Virg.

4. Idem masculine is long; but neuter, short. Identidem has the penultimate short. The first i of $n\bar{\imath}mirum$, the i of $ub\bar{\imath}que$, $utrob\bar{\imath}que$, and the second in $ib\bar{\imath}dem$, are long. Ub $\bar{\imath}$ vis and $ub\bar{\imath}$ cunque (and probably most of the compounds of $ub\bar{\imath}$ and $ib\bar{\imath}$) may be found common.

Clamat: io matres audite *ubĭcunque* ³ Latinæ—Virg. Servor, *ubīcunque* est; uni mea gaudia servo?—Ov.

Words derived from trīginta must not be confounded with the compounds of tris or tres, short by this rule; for trīcesimus, trīgesimus, trīceni, are long, because trīginta is long, ginta being no distinct word, but a termination.

Bis jam pene tibi consul trīgesimus instat—Mart.

2 Al. ubi quæque. This is the usual reading.

5. The compounds of dies have the final i of the first word long; as bīduum, trīduum, merīdies, prīdie, postrīdie. These two last are long by Exception 3d, being priori die and posteriori die.

Si totus tibi trīduo legatur—Mart.

Nam vita morti propior est quotidie—Phædr.

Quotidie, and quotidianus, are said to have the *i* sometimes short; but this is not satisfactorily ascertained, since the lines adduced in proof may, by the figure synizesis, be differently measured: thus,

Conjugis in culpa flagravit quōttidiānā—Catull. or quōttīd-yā-nā.

It must however be confessed, that, thus read, the line is harsh, and is unnecessarily rendered spondaic.

RULE VII.--O.

O is short in the first word of a Greek or Latin compound; as Argonauta, Arctophylax, areopagus, bibliotheca, philosophus, Timotheus; bardocucullus, sacrosanctus, duodecim, duodeni, hodie, words compounded of two nouns.

Non nautas puto vos, sed *Argŏnautas*—Martial. A tergo nitet *Arctŏphylax*, idemque Bootes—Manil. Non dices *hŏdic*, quorsum hæc tam putida tendant—Hor.

Exceptions.

1. Words compounded with intro, retro, contro, and quando; as introduco, intromitto, retrocedo, retrogradus, controversia, controversus, quandoque, quandocunque. To which may be added alioquin, utroque, cæteroquin, utrobique; the compounds of quo, as quomodo, quocunque, quominus, quocirca, quovis, quoque, and similar ablatives.

Quandoquidem, and quoque, the particle, have the o short.

Ipse retroversus squalentia protulit ora—Ov.

Quòd mœchus foret, aut sicarius, aut aliōquin—Hor. Dicite; quandŏquidem in molli consedimus herba—Virg.—damnabis tu quŏque votis—Virg.

2. Those words, which in Greek are written with an omega, have the o long; as Geometra, Minotaurus, lagopus.

Minotaurus inest, Veneris monimenta pefanda—Virg.

RULE VIII.—U and Y.

U, and Y in Greek words, are short; as, in the first syllable, ducenti, dupondium; in the second, quadrupes, con-

tŭplex, Trojŭgena, cornŭpeta; also Polÿdorus, Polÿdamas, Polÿphemus, dorÿphorus.¹

1 It may be useful to beginners, and to the mere English scholar, if we subjoin a few of those words, which are often incorrectly pronounced, some of them even by our best English poets. Andronicus, Cleonicus, Stratonicus, Polynices, Thessalonica, &c. have the penultimate long, because the first syllable of viny, victoria, whence, probably, they are derived, is long; βουλετο νίκην -Il. vii. 21. The first syllable of πάγος (a hill) is short: therefore we say, Areopägus. Bellerophon was so named, in consequence of having slain one Bellerus, the second syllable of which, like the second of the former, is short. Milton has improperly accented it. Many of our English poets improperly lay the emphasis on the second of Geryon, contrary to ancient usage. Geryone extincto, &c. Virg. vii, 662: viii, 202. Hor. ii, 14, 8. Some writers produce the authority of Claudian, for lengthening the second syllable. See Grad. ad Parnas. Smetii Prosod. Hoc neque Geryon triplex, nec turbidus orci-Claud. But the proper reading is Geryones, by which the true quantity is preserved. The second syllable in Granicus, in Homer, Hesiod, Ovid, &c. is always long: Il. xii, 21. Granico nata bicorni-Ovid. xi, 763. In the Greek and Latin poets the penultimate of Helena, Gr. Ελένη, is invariably short. But it is vulgarly pronounced long in the name of the island St. Helena, said to be discovered on the day dedicated by the Romish church to St. Helena, the mother of Constantine the Great. The English accent or syllabic emphasis is improperly laid on the a of Heraclitus. Heraclitus init &c.—Lucr. i, 639. Shakespeare and others pronounce Hyperion with i short, contrary to the custom of the Greek and Latin poets. Hyperione menso-Metamorph viii, 564. In the Greek and Latin poets, the penultimate of Iphigenia is always long. Dryden and others pronounce it as a word of four syllables. Iphigenia mora-Prop. Homer and Virgil make the penultimate of Laodamia long; many of our poets accent the antepenultimate. Laodamia sinus—Ovid. Several of our English poets throw the emphasis on the penultimate of Pharnaces; yet Lucan and others make it short. Pharnacis et gelido, &c .- Phars. The best Greek and Roman poets lengthen the penultimate of Serāpis. Vincebant, nec quæ turba Serapin amat-Mart. ix, 31. Martianus Capella, and some others, unwarrantably shorten the second. It may be observed that the first syllable in Apis, which is supposed by some [see Gesn. Thes.] to be the same Ægyptian deity, is uniformly long. Mactabitur $\bar{A}pis$. Luc. ix, 169. We sometimes find in English an improper quantity given to triúmviri, decémviri, centúmviri, and the like, words having their third syllable short. Read Æölus, Antipodes, Herodotus, Thucydides, Archimedes, Amphion, Tisiphone, Terpsichore, Milliades, Alcibildes, Amphitrite, Anticlea, Arion, Arsaces, Casarea, CleoNam fuit hoc vitiosus; in horâ sæpe dŭeentos—Hor. Nam qualis quantusque cavo Polyphemus in antro—Virg. Except jūdico, long in its first syllable.

Et sapit, et mecum facit, et Jove judicat æquo-Hor.

menes, Darīus, Deiphobus, Demosthenes, Diomedes, Epīrus, Erato, Euphrates, Hecăte, Hermione, Agesilaus, Iulus, Ixion, Leucate, Longimanus, Mausolus (hence mausoleum,) Medea, Neritos, Nicomēdes, Omphale, Osiris, Pachūnus, Pactolus, Persephone, Philomēla, Pisistratus, Proserpina, Sardanapālus, Acrisione, Thalia, Thrăsybūlus, Tomyris, asylum, Pantheon, Orion, panacea, Orēades, Antiochia, Pandion, Philostratus, Galatea, Bellovaci, Andreas, Philadelphia, (the name of a town, Gr. φιλαδέλφεια) philadelphia (brotherly love, Gr. φιλαδελφία) presbyter, (although πρεσβυτης,) sabacthani, -- and to these words, were there room, many more might be added, in which English pronunciation frequently errs. It may be observed, that, according to the analogy of the English language, the English ictus is generally much more safely laid upon a syllable, in the original language, long, than upon a short one. It has, doubtless, arisen, from paying more attention to the position of the Greek accent than to the original long quantity of the following syllable, or to the generally corresponding influence of our own English ictus or syllabic emphasis, that we ever hear éremus, poesis, idolum, instead of eremus, poesis, idolum. From the same cause, it has probably arisen, that the penultimate of the word Paracletus or Paraclītus (παράκλητος), which is unquestionably long, has been shortened by Prudentius, and other poets, and hymn composers. The Greek accentual marks, the precise object of which, whether to indicate tone or emphasis, is not ascertained, should not be allowed in preference to a due regard to quantity, and the general analogy of Latin pronunciation, to regulate our syllabic emphasis. Accent and emphasis are not identical properties; nor should ancient long quantity, and our English syllabic emphasis be confounded, although the latter be found to fall most frequently upon a long syllable. And, although, in the preceding examples, the first syllable of idolum be long, as well as the second; yet, whatever may be the position or the object of the Greek accent, considering it as a Latin word, it appears to me, that, in our pronunciation, the quantity of both syllables will be the best regarded, by laying the emphasis on the middle syllable. By "the accent," whatever may have been its original import, the modern Greeks evidently mean nothing but ictus or syllabic emphasis. I asked an intelligent Greek to pronounce, in their usual way, the word ἔιδωλον; which he did thus; itholon, giving the diphthong the diphthongal sound of our English i (ai), throwing the emphasis on the first syllable, and thus naturally, I do not say necessarily, giving an improper short quantity to the second.

U in such words as usūcapio, usūvenio, is long, being the termination of an ablative naturally long. Jūpiter, being a contraction, has u long.

RULE IX.

OF THE FIRST SYLLABLE OF DISSYLLABIC PRETERITES.

Preterites of two syllables have the first long; as vēni, vīdi, vīci, īvi.

Fortunatus et ille deos qui *novit* agrestes—Virg. Vēnit summa dies, et ineluctabile tempus—Virg.

Exceptions.

1. These seven, bibi, scidi from scindo, (for abscidi is long from abscido, abscidi, short from abscindo,) fidi from findo, (for fīdi, and confīdi, from fido are long,) tŭli, dčdi, stčti, stiti, have the first syllable short.

Claudite jam rivos, pueri; sat prata *bĭberunt*—Virg. Cui mater mediâ sese *túlit* obvia sylva—Virg.

RULE X.

OF THE TWO FIRST SYLLABLES OF REDUPLICATED PRETERITES.

Preterites doubling their first syllable have that syllable and the following, both short; as tětigi, pěpůli, pěpěri, didici, tůtůdi, cěcidi from cado.

Tityre, te patulæ cěcini sub tegmine fagi—Virg.

Exceptions.

1. Cĕcīdi from cædo, and pĕpēdi, have the second syllable long; and likewise those preterites, in which it is followed by two consonants; as fĕfēlli, mŏmōrdi.

Ebrius et petulans, qui nullum forte *cecīdit*—Juv. Extulit, et cœlo palmas cum voce *tetēndit*—Virg.

RULE XI.

OF THE FIRST SYLLABLE OF DISSYLLABIC SUPINES.

Supines of two syllables, and the participles formed from them, have the first syllable long; as cāsum, vīsum, mōtum, vīsus, mōtus, vīsurus, mōtusus.

Terribiles visu formæ, letumque, laborque—Virg.

Quos ego—sed motos præstat componere fluctus—Virg.

Exceptions.

- 1. Sătum coming from sero; citum from cico¹; litum from
- ¹ Citum from cio is long; hence citus, accitus, excitus, concitus, Excitum ruit ad portus, et littora complent.—Virg.

tino¹; situm from sino; itum from eo; dătum from do; rŭ-tum (as well as rŭitum, and hence dirŭtum, erŭtum, &c.) from ruo; quitum from queo; rŭtum from reor; and f ŭtum from the obsolete fuo, (but whence f ŭturus) have the first syllable short.

Corripuit sese, et tectis citus extulit altis—Virg. Cui dătus hærebam custos, cursusque regebam—Virg. Effigiemque toro locat, haud ignara f ituri—Virg. Dirita sunt aliis, uni mihi Pergama restant—Ovid.

2. Stătum is common: hence we find stăturus, constâturus, obstâturus, stāmen, Stātius, a man's name; and præstitum, stătus -ûs, stătus -a -um, stătio, stătuo, stăbilis, stăbulum, stător, stătim, &c., the former of which are said to come from sto, the latter from sisto.

Non præstāta sibi præstat natura sed unus—Prosp. Constātura fuit Megalensis purpura centum—Mart. Urbem quam stātuo vestra est.——Virg. Hic stātus in cœlo multos permansit in annos—Ovid. Tunc res immenso placuit stātura labore—Lucan.

RULE XII.

OF THE FIRST SYLLABLE OF POLYSYLLABIC PRETERITES AND SUPINES.

Preterites and supines of more than two syllables have the same quantity in their first syllable as the present; thus vŏ-cavi and vŏcatum have the first short, because the first of vŏco is short; clāmavi and clāmatum have the first long, because the first of clāmo is long.

Si vŏcat officium turbâ cedente vehetur—Juv. Induit, implevitque mero, divosque vŏcavit—Virg. Protinus ad sedes Priami clamore vŏcati—Virg.

Exceptions.

1. The following are short in the first syllable, although coming from long presents, pŏsui, pŏsitum, from pōno; gĕnui, gĕnitum, from ḡgno; pŏtui from pōssum; solutum, vŏlutum, from sōlvo and vōlvo.

Sæcula? qui tanti talem gënuêre parentes—Virg. Et circum Iliades, crinem de more sèlutæ—Virg.

Citus in the sense of divisus is long, coming from cio; but citus, quick, is short, from cico, and hence concitus, hastened. The verb and adverb cito, formed from it, are short, and also the compounds, as excito, concito, recito.

1 Oblitus, smeared, from line is to be distinguished from oblitus, having forgotten, from ablicion.

RULE XIII.

OF THE PENULTIMATE OF POLYSYLLABIC SUPINES.

Supines of more than two syllables, in atum, etum and utum, lengthen the last syllable but one; as amātum, delētum, minūtum.

Supines in *itum* from preterites in *ivi*, also have the penultimate long; as *cupivi*, *cupītum*, *petivi*, *petītum*, *polivi*, *polītum*. But the compounds of *co*, *ambio*, if it be a com-

pound, excepted, have the penultimate short.

Supines in itum, coming from any other preterites, shorten the penultimate; as cubui, cubitum, monui, monitum, abolevi, abolitum, agnovi, agnitum, cognovi, cognitum, credidi, creditum. Recensitum of recenseo is long, because it originally comes from the obsolete censio, censivi.

Namque ferunt luctu Cycnum Phaëthontis amāti—Virg. Delētas Volscorum acies, cecidisse Camillam—Virg. Hectore, qui redit exuvias indūtus Achillei—Virg. Adjicit extremo lapides oriente petītos—Ov. Cedamus Phœbo, et monīti meliora sequamur—Virg. Prisca recensītis evolvite sæcula fastis—Claud.

RULE XIV.

OF THE PENULTIMATE OF PARTICIPLES IN RUS.

Participles in rus always lengthen the last syllable but one; as amatūrus, habitūrus, ausūrus.

Si peritūrus abis, et nos rape in omnia tecum-Virg.

OF THE INCREMENTS OF NOUNS.

By the increments of nouns, is meant the syllable, or syllables, by which an oblique case exceeds the nominative.

If a noun has one syllable, in an oblique case, more than the nominative, it is said to have one increment, or increase;

as rex, re-gis; sermo, ser-mo-nis.

The quantity of the increment of all the other oblique cases is regulated by that of the genitive; as sermoni, ser-

¹ Divido, whether it be formed immediately from video, or derived from the Etruscan iduo, follows, in quantity, the analogy of video; thus divido, divisi, divisum, the second syllable of Perf. and Sup. being long. Gaudeo, too, probably also a kindred verb, has gavisus, second long.

Et penitus toto divīsos orbe Britannos—Virg. Armaque gavīso referat captiva parenti—Claud.

monem, sermonibus, &c. in all which the o is long, because the o of sermonis is long. There is but one exception to this rule, viz. bōbus, but this is, in reality, a contraction of bovbus, from bos, bovis. When a word of one syllable increases, the penultimate is considered as the increment; as the re in regis from rex, and never, in any word, the last syllable; and it is to be observed, that, when there are more increments than one, which seldom happens but in the plural, they are to be reckoned in retrograde order, beginning with the penultimate.

Nouns, in general, have but one increase in the singular; but *iter*, *jecur* when its genitive is *jecinoris*, *supellex*, and the compounds of *caput*, ending in *ps*, have two increments:

the compounds of caput, ending in
$$ps$$
, have two increments:

Thus, $iter$, $i-ti-ne-ris$.

 $jecur$, $je-ci-no-ris$.

 $supellex$, $supel-lec-ti-lis$.

 $anceps$, $an-ci-pi-tis$.

The dative and ablative of the third declension, in *ibus*, have generally two increments; as ser - no - ni - bus. The

forementioned words have three increments; thus,

$$i - ti - ne - ri - bus.$$

 $je - ci - no - ri - bus.$
 $supel - lec - ti - li - bus.$
 $an - ci - pi - ti - bus.$

The uncommon increase of these words arises from their originally coming from nominatives, now obsolete, which consisted of a greater number of syllables than the nominatives to which they are now assigned.

OF THE INCREMENTS OF THE SINGULAR NUMBER.

Of the 1st, 4th, and 5th, Declensions.

In the first, fourth, and fifth declensions, there is no increment in the singular, but that in which a vowel precedes another; as in the first, in such words as *aulai*, *aurai*; in the fourth, in *anuis*, *anui*, instead of *anus*, *anui*, &c.;—and in *rei* and *spei*, and the like, of the fifth:—the quantity of all which words is ascertained by the first general rule.

INCREMENTS OF THE SECOND DECLENSION.

RULE XV.

The increments of the second declension are short; as tener, teněri; satur, saturi; vir, viri; puer, puěri¹.

¹ These nouns in r are formed, by Apocope, from nouns in us;

Præsentemque viris intentant omnia mortem-Virg.

Exceptions.

1. Iber, Ibēri, and its compound Celtiber, Celtiberi, lengthen the penultimate.

Aut impacatos a tergo horrebis *Iberos*—Virg.

INCREMENTS OF THE THIRD DECLENSION.

RULE XVI.—A.

Nouns in a shorten the penultimate; as dogma -ătis.

Non quivis videt immodulata poëmăta judex—Hor.

RULE XVII.——I.

Nouns in *i*, compounds of *meli*, shorten the penultimate; as *hydromeli*, *hydromelitis*.

RULE XVIII.—O.

1. Inis, from o, is short; as cardo, cardinis.

2. Enis, and onis, from o, are long; as Anio, Anienis;

Cicero, Ciceronis.

3. Gentiles in o generally shorten the increment; as Maccedo, Maccedonis; Saxo, Saxonis. To which add Lingoncs, Senones, Teutones, Vangiones, Vasconcs, with the penultimate short. Some lengthen their penultimate; as Suessiones, Vettones, Burgundiones, Eburones. Juvenal shortens Britones; Martial lengthens it.

Note. Nouns in on, taken from the Greek ωv , which sometimes drop the n, preserve in Latin the same quantity in their increments, which they have in Greek; as Agamemnon or Agamemno, Agamemnonis, with the penultimate short; Dcmiphon or Demipho, Demiphonis, with the penultimate long.

Sanguine placâstis ventos, et *virgine* cæsa—Virg. Hæc tum multiplici populos *sermone* replebat—Virg. Non longinqua docent domito quod *Saxone* Tethys—Claud.

Qua nec terribiles Cimbri, nec *Britones* unquam—Juv. Quam veteres braccæ *Britonis* pauperis, et quam—Mart. Quo ferus injusto petiit *Agamemnona* ferro—Ovid.

RULE XIX.——C.

Nouns in ec lengthen the penultimate; as halec -ēcis; Melchisedec -dēcis.

as tenerus, puerus, saturus; and, therefore, strictly speaking, they have no increment in their singular.

Halecem sed quam protinus ipsa voret-Mart.

RULE XX.——D.

Nouns in d shorten the penultimate; as David - idis; Bogud - idis.

Erecto indulget Davidis origine lumen—Juvenc.

In sacred poetry, the penultimate of *David* is often lengthened.

RULE XXI.—L.

1. Masculines in al shorten the penultimate; as sal, sălis, (masc. or neut.) Hannibal -ălis.

2. Neuters in al lengthen ālis; as animal -ālis.

3. Sol lengthens sõlis; and also Hebrew nouns in el lengthen the penultimate; as Michaël -ēlis; Daniel -ēlis.

4. All other nouns in *l* shorten their increment; as vigil

-ilis; consul -ilis; exul -ilis.

Vela dabant læti, et spumas *sălis* ære ruebant—Virg. Pronaque cum spectent *animālia* cætera terram—Ovid.

Regia sōlis erat sublimibus alta columnis—Ovid.

Aut ursum aut pugiles, his nam plebecula gaudet—Hor.

RULE XXII.—N.

1. No certain rule can be given for the quantity of the increment from on.

Many nouns lengthen the penultimate: as Helicon, Chiron, Demiphon, Simon, Agon, Solon, Lacon, Sicyon, -ōnis.

Many shorten it; as Memnon, Actaon, Iäson, Agamemnon, Amazon, sindon, Philamon-onis. Sidon, Orion, and Ægæon have the penultimate common. (See Rule XVIII.)

2. Nouns in en shorten inis; as crimen -inis; flumen -inis.

3. All other nouns in n lengthen the penultimate; thus an, ānis, as Titan -ānis; en, ēnis, as Siren -ēnis; in, īnis, as delphin -īnis; yn, $\bar{y}nis$, as Phoreyn - $\bar{y}nis$, but $Hym\bar{e}n$ - $\bar{e}nis$.

Credit, et excludit sanos Helicône poëtas—Hor.

Et velut absentem certatim Actaona clamant—Ov.

Ægæōna suis immania terga lacertis—Ov.

Audierat duros laxantem Ægæŏna nexus—Stat.

Quodque magis mirum est, auctorem criminis hujus—Mart.

Concitat iratus validos Titānas in arma—Ov.

Tollere consuetas audent delphines in auras—Ovid.

RULE XXIII.—-R.

1. Ar neuter lengthens āris; as calcar -āris.

Except. These neuters shorten ăris; bacchar, jubar, nectar, -ăris, to which add hepar -ătis; also the adjective par, păris, with its compounds; as impar, impăris; dispar, dispăris, &c.

2. These nouns ending in r lengthen the increment; as Nar, Nāris; Car, Cāris; fur, fūris; ver, vēris; Recimer, Recimēris; Byzer, Byzēris; Ser, Sēris; Iber, Ibēris, as well

as Iber, Iberi, of the second declension.

3. Greek nouns in ter lengthen tēris; as crater -ēris; character -ēris; spinther -ēris. Except æther -ĕris, the penultimate short.

4. Or lengthens oris; as amor, timor, -oris: also verbal

nouns, and comparatives; as victor, melior, -oris.

Except. 1. Neuters; as marmor, æquor, -ŏris. 2. Greek nouns in or; as Hector, rhetor, -ŏris. 3. Arbor, -ŏris, feminine, and the adjective memor (formerly memoris), memoris.

Ador forms adŏris, or adōris, the penultimate being common, whence adōreus, in Virgil, Horace, and Claudian. Decōris, long, is said to come from decor; decŏris short, from

decus.

5. Other nouns in r, not mentioned, shorten the penultimate: thus ar, ăris, masculine; as Cæsar -ăris; lar, lăris: er, ĕris, of any gender, as aër, aĕris; mulier -ĕris; cadaver, -ĕris; also iter (formerly itiner), itinĕris, and verbĕris from the obsolete verber: ur, ŭris, and ŏris, as vultur, murmur, furfur, -ŭris; femur, robur, jecur¹, ebur, -ŏris: yr, ÿris, as martur, martÿris.

Seu spumantis equi foderet calcūribus armos—Virg. It portis jubăre exorto delecta juventus—Virg. Ardentes auro, et păribus lita corpora guttis—Virg. Velleraque ut foliis depectant tenuia Sēres—Virg. Indulgent vino, et vertunt cratēras ahenos—Virg. Inque dies quanto circum magis athĕris æstus—Lucr. Quo magis æternum da dictis, diva, lepōrem²—Lucr. Multa super Priamo rogitans, super Hectore multa—

Virg. Si nigrum obscuro comprênderit *äĕra* cornu—Virg. Aspice, ventosi ceciderunt *murmŭris* auræ—Virg.

RULE XXIV.—AS.

1. Latin nouns in as lengthen the increment; as Macenas, atas, pietas, -ātis; vas, vāsis, a vessel.

1 And jecinoris.

* Distinguish lepor -oris, (elegance), from lepus -oris, (a hare).

Except anas, anatis; mas, maris; and vas, vadis, (a se-

curity), their penultimate being short.

2. Greek nouns in as shorten adis, atis and anis; as Pallas, lampas, -adis; artocreas, artocreatis; Melas, Melanis.

Insignem *pietāte* virum tot adire labores—Virg. Tyrtæusque *măres* animos in martia bella—Hor. Instar montis equum divina *Pallădis* arte—Virg.

RULE XXV.—ES.

Es shortens the increment; as miles, militis; seges, segëtis; præses, præsidis; obses, obsidis; Ceres, Cereris; pes, pedis.

Except locuples, quies, mansues, -ētis; hæres, merces, -ēdis: also Greek nouns which have etis; as lebes, Thales, tapes, magnes, -ētis, all with the penultimate long.

Metiri se quemque suo modulo ac pĕde, verum est—Hor. Ascanium surgentem, et spes hærēdis Iüli—Virg. Viginti fulvos operoso ex ære lebētas—Ovid.

RULE XXVI.——IS.

Nouns in is shorten the increment; as lapis, Phyllis, -idis;

cinis, cineris; sanguis, sanguinis.

Except. 1. Glis, glīris, and vīres, the plural of vis, which have the penultimate long. 2. Latin nouns which have itis; as dis, dītis; lis, lītis; Quiris, Samnis, -ītis. But Charis, a Greek noun, has Charītis short. 3. Crenis, Crenīdis; Nesis, Nesīdis; Psophis, Psophīdis, lengthen the penultimate, but the last has it once short in Statius. 4. Greek nouns in is, which have also the termination in; as Salamis, or Salamin, -īnis.

Immolat et pœnam scelerato ex sanguine sumit—Virg. Sic fatus validis ingentem vīribus hastam—Virg. Insequeris tamen hunc, et līte moraris iniqua—Hor. Tres fuerant Charītes, sed dum mea Lesbia vixit—Auson. Sylvaque, quæ fixam pelago Nesīda coronat—Stat. Tyburis umbra tui, Teucer Salamīna patremque—Hor.

RULE XXVII.—OS.

Os has its increment long; as nepos, nepōtis; flos, flōris; os, ōris; custos, ōdis; also Greek nouns in os; as rhinoceros -ōtis; Tros, heros, -ōis.

Except. Three have their increment short, bos, bovis; com-

pos, impos, -ŏtis.

Qui legitis *flores*, et humi nascentia fraga—Virg. Egressi optatâ potiuntur *Trôcs* arenâ—Virg. Perpetui tergo *bŏvis*, et lustralibus extis—Virg.

RULE XXVIII.—US.

Nouns in us shorten the increment; as lepus, corpus, -oris;

vellus -čris; tripus -odis.

Except. 1. Those nouns which have udis, uris, or utis, lengthen the penultimate; as incus, incūdis; tellus, tellūris; salus, salūtis. But these three are short; Ligūris from Ligur or Ligus; pecūdis from the obsolete pecus; and intercūtis from intercus.

2. Comparatives in us lengthen the penultimate, preserving the same quantity as in the masculine and feminine gen-

ders; as melius, melioris.

Ut canis in vacuo lepŏrem cum Gallicus arvo—Ovid. In medio: sacri tripŏdes viridesque coronæ—Virg. Fas et jūra sinunt: rivos deducere nulla—Virg. Non ego te, Ligŭrum ductor fortissime bello—Virg. Perge, decet, forsan miseros meliōra sequentur—Virg.

RULE XXIX.—YS.

1. Ys shortens the increment $\check{y}dis$, or $\check{y}dos$; as chlamys $-\check{y}dis$ or $-\check{y}dos$.

2. Ys lengthens ynis; as Trachys -ynis.

In medio, chlamyde, et pictis conspectus in armis— Virg.

Herculeâ Trachyne jube, sub imagine regis—Ovid.

RULE XXX.—BS, PS, MS.

Nouns in s preceded by a consonant, shorten their increment; as cælebs -ĭbis; stips, stipis; Lælaps -ăpis; Cecrops, Dolops, -ŏpis; auceps -cŭpis; hiems -ĕmis: also, anceps -cĭpitis; biceps, bicĭpitis, and similar compounds of caput, in which both increments are short.

Except. The following lengthen their increment: Cyclops -ōpis; seps, sēpis; gryps -ÿphis; Cercops -ōpis; plebs,

plēbis; hydrops -opis.

Hic Dolopum manus, hic sævus tendebat Achilles—Virg. Ad matres primo ancipites, oculisque malignis—Virg. Antiphatæ memores immansuetique Cyclopis—Ovid. Fortunam, et mores antiquæ plēbis, et idem—Hor.

That is, when a single consonant comes between the increment and the termination. If two consonants intervene, the penultimate is necessarily long by position; as excors, excordis; pars, pārtis.

RULE XXXI.—T.

Nouns ending in t shorten the penultimate of itis; as caput, capitis; sinciput, sincipitis.

Magna fuit quondam capitis reverentia cani—Ov.

RULE XXXII.—X.

1. A noun in x shortens the vowel before gis in the genitive; as harpax-ăgis; grex, gregis; aquilex-legis; Biturix-ăgis; Styx-ğgis; Allobrox-ögis; conjux-ăgis; Phryx-ğgis.

Except. Lex, lēgis; illex, exlex, -lēgis; rex, rēgis; coccyx -ggis, mastix -īgis; and frūgis from the obsolete frux,

are long.

Quinque gréges illi balantum, quina redibant—Virg. Ad Styga Tænarià est ausus descendere portà—Ovid. Prima dedit lēges ------Ovid.

2. A noun in ex shortens icis; as vertex -icis; pontifex -icis.—Except vibex (rather vibix) -icis, long.

Qualem virgineo demessum pollice florem—Virg.

3. Other nouns in x generally lengthen the increment: thus nouns in ax; as pax, $p\bar{a}cis$; fornax- $\bar{a}cis$.—Except. Abax, smilax, Atrax, dropax, anthrax, fax, Atax, climax, panax, opopanax, styrax, colax, the compounds of phylax and corax, as Arctophylax, Nomophylax, nycticorax, phalacrocorax, all have $\bar{a}cis$ short.

In ex; as vervex -ēcis.——Except. Nex, něcis; vícis and prěcis, wanting nominatives; also fænisex, resex, -ěcis; and

supellex -ectilis, have the penultimate short.

In ix; as radix, cicatrix, felix, nutrix, victrix, altrix, and, probably, (notwithstanding a line in Lucilius) following the usual analogy of verbal nouns, natrix -īcis.——Except. Appendix, fornix, coxendix, chænix, Cilix, calix, pix, illix (a decoy), hystrix, varix, filix, salix, larix, -ĭcis; and nix, nĭvis, and mastix ichis (a gum), which have the penultimate short.—Mastix -īgis (a Greek noun), a whip, is long.

In ox; as vox, vocis; velox -ocis.—Except. Cappadox,

præcox, -öcis, short.

In ux; as lux, lūcis; Pollux -lūcis.—Except. Dux,

crux, nux, trux have ŭcis short.

In yx; as bombyx - $\bar{y}cis$.—Except onyx - $\bar{y}chis$; Eryx - $\bar{y}cis$; calyx - $\bar{y}cis$; Naryx- $\bar{y}cis$, which have the penultimate short.

Note. $Syphax^1$, sandyx and Bebryx have the penultimate of the genitive common.

¹ The short quantity of Syphax may be doubted. The line from Claudian, quoted by Smetius, as an instance, has been deemed incorrect.

PLURAL INCREMENTS.—A, E, I, O, U.

RULE XXXIII.

1. A, e, o, in plural increments, are long; as musārum, rērum, dominōrum, ambābus, rēbus.

Mænala transieram latebris horrenda *ferārum*—Ov. Sunt lacrymæ *rērum*, et mentem mortalia tangunt—Virg. Sic ubi dispositam, quisquis fuit ille *deōrum*—Ovid. Exin se cuncti divinis *rēbus* ad urbem—Virg.

2. I and u are short; as sermonibus, tribus, quibus, artibus from ars; verübus, lacübus, artübus from artus.

Montibus in liquidas pinus descenderat undas—Ov.

Pars in frusta secant, $ver \check{u}bus$ que trementia figunt—Virg. $B\bar{o}bus$, or $b\bar{u}bus$, has been already noticed as a contraction, from $b\check{o}v\check{u}bus$; and, consequently, is long.

Nescia, nec quicquam junctis debentia bōbus—Ovid.

INCREMENT OF VERBS.

When any part of a verb exceeds in number of syllables the second person singular of the present indicative, active, the excess is considered as the increment or increase. As in nouns, the last syllable is never reckoned the increment; so that when there is only one increment, it must be the penultimate.

Da-mus, fle-tis, sci-res have one increment, because das, fles, and scis are monosyllables. A-ma-ba-mus, a-ma-bi-tis have two increments, because they exceed amas by two syllables. A-ma-ve-ri-tis has three increments. Au-di-e-ba-mi-ni has four increments, because it has four syllables more than audis. In determining the increments of deponent verbs, an active voice may be supposed; thus co-na-tur has one increment,

 $co_na_ba_tur$, two, $co_na_re_mi_ni$, three, because conas of the fictitious active voice has but two syllables. The increments of these may also be regulated by other verbs of the same conjugation, which have an active voice.

RULE XXXIV. -- A.

A is long in the increments of verbs; as stābam, amā-rem, legebāmus, audiebāmini, bibāmus, venerāmus.

Stābat in egregiis Arcentis filius armis—Virg.

Exceptions.

1. Do and its compounds of the first conjugation have a short in their first increment; as dămus, dăbunt, dăre; also circundămus, venundăbo, &c., the penultimate being short. But in any other increment, do, like its compounds of the third conjugation, is long; as dăbāmus, dederātis, circundăbāmus, credāmus.

Hæc ego vasta dăbo, et lato te limite ducam—Virg. Luce palam certum est igni circundăre muros—Virg.

RULE XXXV.——E.

E is long in the increments of verbs; as amēmus, amarēmus, amavissētis, docēbam, docērem, legēbat, legērunt, legēris, legēre, both of the future passive, audiēmus, &c.

Flēbant, et cineri ingrato suprema ferēbant—Virg. Sed qui pacis opus citharam cum voce movēres—Ovid.

Exceptions.

1. E before r is short in the first increment of any present and imperfect of the third conjugation; as legăris or legăre of the present indicative, passive; legăre, the present infinitive active, and imperative, passive; legărem and legărer, the imperfect subjunctive, active and passive. But rāris and rēre, in the third, and in other conjugations, are long; as legerēris, legerēre; amarēris, amarēre; docerēris, docerēre, &c.

An quia, cum *legëret* vernos Proserpina flores—Ovid. Nostra, neque ad sedes victor *veherëre* paternas—Virg.

2. Bĕris and bĕre are every where short; as amabĕris, amabĕre; docebĕris, docebĕre; and among the antients, largibĕris, experibĕre, of the fourth—Excepting where the b belongs also to the termination of the present, scribēris, and scribēre, of the future, passive, being long by the general rule.

Hoc tamen infelix miseram solabere mortem-Virg.

3. E, before ram, rim, ro, and the persons formed from them, is short; as amaveram, amaveras, amaverim, amavero, docueram, eram, fueram, potero, potuero, &c.

Vincere, nec duro *potëris* convellere ferro—Virg. By Systole, the poets sometimes shorten *e* before *runt*; as Obstupui, *stetëruntque* comæ, et vox faucibus hæsit—

Virg.

Dî tibi divitias dedĕrunt, artemque fruendi—Hor.

RULE XXXVI.—-I.

I is short in any increment of verbs; as amabimus, docebitur, legimus, cupitis, aggredimur, audiremini, audimini, audiebamini.

Lingumus Ortygiæ portus, pelagoque volamus—Virg. Venimus²; et latos indagine cinximus agros—Ovid.

Exceptions.

1. These have i long; sīmus, velīmus, nolīmus, with the other persons coming from them and their compounds; as sītis, velītis, nolītis; nolītie, nolītote; malīmus, malītis; possīmus, possītis, &c.

Et gratam sortem, tutæ modo simus, habemus—Ovid.

2. I before vi, in preterites, is always long; as petīvi, quæsīvi, audīvi; and also in the other persons; as petīvisti, quæsīvit, audīvimus, &c.

Cessi, et sublato montem genitore petivi-Virg.

3. The first increment of the fourth conjugation is long³; as audīmus, audītis, audītur, audīto, audīrem, scīmus, scīre; also in the antient audībo, and in audībam sometimes found contracted, and the usual *ībam* and *ībo* of eo.—When a vowel follows, the *i* is short by position, as audĭunt, audĭebam.

Omnibus *audūtur*. Sonus est, qui vivit in illa—Ovid. Tu ne cede malis; sed contra audentior *īto*—Virg.

Thimus in pænas - - - - - - Ovid.

Observe, That imus in every preterite, and in that of the

¹ This is applicable only to verbs in their natural state, and not to such as have suffered contraction.

^a In such verbs of the fourth conjugation as have, in the first persons plural of their present and perfect indicative, the same words in regard to spelling, there is a distinction by the quantity; the penultimate of the former being long, as venīmus, reperīmus; that of the latter short, as venīmus, reperīmus.

In ordurque miserrima cædes—Virg, the verb is of the 3d

conjugation.

fourth conjugation also, is short; as juvimus, vidimus, scimus, venimus, the first increment being short; amavimus, adolevimus, pepercimus, munivimus; the second being short.

Bis sex Nelidæ fuimus conspecta juventus — Ovid.

(See the preceding note.)

Rimus and Ritis.

Rimus and ritis in the preterite subjunctive are short.

Egerimus, nosti; et nimium meminisse necesse est—Virg.

Rimus and ritis in the perfect future (future subjunctive)
are common 1.

Videritis stellas illic, ubi circulus axem—Ovid. Dein cum millia multa fecerīmus—Catull. Cum maris Ionii transierītis aquas—Ovid.

RULE XXXVII.—-0.

O in the increments of verbs is always long; as amatōte, facitōte, itōte.

Hoc tamen amborum verbis estote rogati—Ovid.

¹ In regard to the quantity of the terminations rimus and ritis of the subjunctive, the antient grammarians were divided; and it is not an easy matter to ascertain it. Diomedes, Probus and Servius thought the future long: Vossius seemed to incline to the same opinion, though he owned that there were authorities for its being considered short. Diomedes and Agroetius thought the preterite short; Probus, long. - It is not always easy to distinguish these two tenses, since, without materially altering the sense, they may be, in many instances, interconvertible. The perfect of the potential seems to be both past-perfect contingent and futureperfect contingent. The perfect future has also so great an affinity to the preterperfect potential that often a word may, consistently with the sense, be supposed to belong to either. As these tenses are usually interpreted in English, there is a great resemblance in their structure, as well as in the ideas which they express. Both are composed of verbs in present time, the one a verb of present liberty or the like, the other of present intention or obligation; of an infinitive denoting subsequent or depending possession; and a participle significant of the perfection of the action denoted by the verb: thus, "I may have written," "I shall have written." We find by A. Gellius, 18, 2. that it was a subject of dispute at Rome whether the tense in rim ought to be set down as past or future, or both. Such disputes may, perhaps, have arisen from the accessary circumstances which are implied, besides the immediate action of the verb; in the same manner as, in English, two forms precisely the same in their structure and reference are characterized by certain grammarians under different times, namely, "I may write," and "I shall write," the for-

RULE XXXVIII.——U.

U in the increments of verbs is short; as possumus, volumus, sumus, quaesumus.

Qui dare certa feræ, dare vulnera possumus hosti-Ov.

For the penultimate of urus, see Rule XIV.

AN APPENDIX.

Concerning the Quantity of the First and Middle Syllables of certain other Words.

I. Patronymics masculine, in IDES, or ADES, generally have the penultimate short; as Priamides, Atlantides.—Except those formed from nouns in eus; as Pelīdes; also Belīdes, Lycurgīdes, Amphiaraīdes, Japetionīdes, which lengthen it.

Atque hîc *Priamidem* laniatum corpore toto—Virg. Par sibi *Pelīdes*: nec inania Tartara sentit—Ovid.

II. Patronymics, and those a-kin to them, in AIS, EIS, ITIS, OIS, OTIS, INE and ONE, generally lengthen the penultimate; as Achāis, Ptolemāis, Chrysēis, Ænēis, Memphītis, Oceanītis, Minōis, Latōis, Icariōtis, Nilōtis, Nerīne, Acrisione. But Thebais and Phocais shorten the penultimate. Nerēis is common.

mer being named, from the accessary idea, a present, and the latter, from the depending action, a future; while, in reality, if we apply the same criterion to them, they are either both present or both future. Indeed, it has been contended that the future had the termination rim as well as ro; so that it is reckoned not improbable that both may originally have been but one tense, which had both a past and a future reference. In addition to the authorities for reckoning rimus and ritis common, there is likewise reason to consider ris of the future at least, as common; and this is an argument, founded on the analogy observed in other tenses between the quantity of the final syllable of the second person singular, and the penultimate of the first and second persons plural increasing a syllable, for considering the following rimus and ritis also common.—Ris, rimus and ritis of the preterite are commonly accounted short; but it is exceedingly probable, that, whether referred to the preterite, or perfect future, they still might be used as common.

^a The principle of arrangement, here briefly intimated several years ago, the present writer afterwards adopted, and partially explained, in his arrangement of what are termed the English tenses. See an English Grammar (published in 1813), Preface; pp. 82, 3, 4, &c.; 210, 11, &c.; 219, &c. In a small tract,

Protinus Ægides, rapta Minoide, Dian-Ovid.

Thebaides jussis sua tempora frondibus ornant—Ovid. III. Adjectives in Acus, Icus, Idus, and Imus, generally have the penultimate short; as Æguptiacus, dæmoniacus; academicus, aromaticus; callidus, perfidus, lepidus; finitimus, legitimus; also superlatives, pulcherrimus, fortissimus, optimus, maximus, &c. Except merācus, opācus; amīcus, aprīcus, pudīcus, mendīcus, postīcus; fīdus, infīdus; bīmus, trīmus, quadrimus, patrimus, matrimus, opimus; and the two superlatives, īmus, and prīmus.

appended to Ruddiman's Rudiments, (first published, I believe, in 1820,) Dr. John Hunter, the learned and justly respected Professor of Humanity in the University of St. Andrew's, has made the same principle the basis of a new arrangement and explication of the Latin and Greek moods and tenses. leading principles upon which he proceeds are, 1st, "By separating the time "from the other circumstances involved in those forms of the Latin verb, " called the tenses of the indicative and the subjunctive mood" [potential?] and, 2nd, By assuming that, as the auxiliary verbs in English employed to render the tenses of the subjunctive mood, are all indicative, "it follows, that the "tenses of the Latin subjunctive, or potential, or optative, as in certain instances "it has been called, as well as the subjunctive and optative of the Greek verb, "which involve these auxiliaries, and are rendered into English by means of them, are also Indicative." Conformably to these principles, Dr. H. thus classes the Latin tenses:

Presents.

Pasts corresponding.

Indic. Pres. Scribo, Perf. Scripsi, Fut. Scribam ? Pres. Scribam (Perf. Scripserim ?

Indic. Imperf. Scribebam, Plup. Scripseram. Subj. Imperf. Scriberem.

Pluperf. Scripsissem.

Fut. Scripsero In the preceding arrangement, it appears that Dr. H., guided solely by the auxiliaries implied, and not regarding the simple energy of the tense, has omitted to dispose of the tense scripsi, "I wrote." As scribebam, "I was writing," corresponds as a past to scribo, "I am writing," as a present; so, it appears to me, does scripsi, "I wrote," correspond to scribo, "I write."— Had we not seen this little tract most ostentatiously lauded, in a number of the New Edinburgh Review, (No. V.) which has just come under our notice, in an article evidently written by a zealous disciple and advocate, but, at the same time, an acute critic, -as exhibiting something new and highly important, we should not have deemed it worth while to prefer any claim to a novelty, if it be such, which, as far as regards the learned languages, we never did think, and do not even now think, of much practical utility; nor to assert, that, neither to Dr. Hunter, whom we never had the pleasure of seeing or hearing, nor to any other person, have we been, in any way whatever, indebted for a single hint or suggestion on this important subject, had not the critic stated his having "seen so many of Dr. Hunter's peculiar doctrines plagiarised, and palmed upon the world as original discoveries, by those who had enjoyed the benefit of his prelections at St. Andrew's." As, however, neither Dr. H., nor the Reviewer, seems to have attempted an explanation of the principle, and although this may not be the proper place for it, we shall endeavour, by a few imperfect hints very hastily thrown together, in some degree to supply the omission. That all propositions, whether certain or contingent, or whatever their forms may be, or whatever may be the grammatical designation of the words in which they are enunciated, are either sententially indicative, Utque suum laqueis, quos callidus abdidit auceps—Ov.
——Fidum Æneas affatur Achaten—Virg.

IV. Adjectives in alis, and almost all in anus, enus, arus, ivus, orus, and osus, have their penultimate long; as conjugālis, dotālis; montānus, urbānus; terrēnus; amārus, avārus; æstīvus, fugitīvus; canīrus, decīrus; arenīsus, perniciūsus.—But the penultimate of barbārus, opipārus and ovipārus is short.

or logically resolvable into simple assertion, has long been considered an established truth. Hence, in conformity with the nature of our ideas, only one mood, the Indicative, is absolutely necessary for the communication of thought. There is, in English, only this mood; and yet, although it contains but two tenses, we possess suitable means of denoting, explicitly and distinctly, possession, power, obligation, volition, liberty, contingency, and every mode and circumstance of thought that are associated with action, in the various moods and tenses of the learned languages. With respect to tenses or times, it seems equally true, that, whatever may be their number or variety in these languages, there are, in the nature of things, as in English, but two, a past, and a present. In speaking of present time, we here wave altogether the metaphysical consideration of the nature of duration. Brief and fleeting as the present moment is, consisting of a portion of time just passed, and a portion just come or coming, there is an assumed period of time, deemed present, whether it be termed the present moment, hour, or day; and all past time was once what we term present. Verbs, we conceive, have their essence in motion or rest; and these two must exist in time. Now, only three sorts of time can be conceived, past, present, and future. Of these, the first has had an existence; the second is said to have an existence; but the third is a sort of non-entity; it is purely ideal, an object of mental contemplation. No action, therefore, can have existed, or can exist, in it. A past action has been before us; it has been present; we know, therefore, that it has had an existence; and we have a right to record it, as having existed, as being past. But an action, contemplated as future, has had no existence, and may never exist; it is a mere contingency. Every action, therefore, or energy of the mind, must come into existence, in the time deemed relatively present. As far, then, as the accessary part of a verb is concerned, and it is with this part alone of a complex tense, that the subject of the verb comes into direct and immediate contact, no future tense ever existed, or, in the nature of things, could exist, in any language, antient or modern. The execution, or action implied in the radical part of the verb, if future, is so merely by inference; because the action is, necessarily, posterior to the volition or obligation from whence it emanates; but the volition or obligation must first exist in present time. The accessary idea is, as it were, the medium, or connecting word between the subject or nominative, and the radical part of the verb, whether this be regarded equivalent to a noun, a participle, or an infinitive. From these few hasty remarks, I think, we may fairly infer, 1st, That all moods are, in sense, essentially Indicative; and, 2ndly, That, as far as regards the time of a simple tense, and, in complex tenses, as far as the accessary or leading idea is concerned, all tenses, in all languages, whether they be simple or complex, are, in sense and signification, Present or Past, Futurity, when implied or involved, being inferred, not specially ex-We shall only add, that tenses may also be arranged, as definite or indefinite, in respect of action or time. When a tense denotes the mere name or simple energy of the verb, as write, plough, it is indefinite in action. When it denotes progression or perfection as indicated, respectively, by writing, ploughing, or by written, ploughed, it is definite. All tenses, we apprehend, are indefinite in point of time, specific portions of it requiring to be ascertained by the addition of appropriate terms. This subject is noticed, at considerable length, in the writer's Eng. Gram. pp. 65, 66, 83, 84, &c. Adjecisset opes, animi irritamen avāri—Ovid.

Pietus acu tunicas, et barbăra tegmina crurum—Virg. V. Verbal adjectives in ILIs shorten the penultimate; as agilis, facilis, fusilis, utilis, &c. But those adjectives which are derived from nouns are generally long; as anīlis, civīlis, herīlis, &c. to which may be added exīlis, and subtīlis; also the names of months, Aprīlis, Quinctīlis, Sextīlis. Except humīlis, parīlis, and simīlis, a word of uncertain origin, whose penultimates are short. But all adjectives in Atilis, whether derived from verbs or nouns, have the penultimate short; as plicatīlis, versatīlis, volatīlis, fluviatīlis, &c.

VI. Adjectives in INUS, derived from living things, and denoting possession; also numeral distributives, proper names, and gentile nouns, lengthen the penultimate; as Agnīnus, canīnus, leporīnus; Bīnus, trīnus, quīnus; Albīnus, Cratīnus, Justīnus; Alexandrīnus, Latīnus, Venusīnus, &c. To these may be added certain adjectives having a reference to animal actions; as adulterīnus, festīnus, gelasīnus, genuīnus, libertīnus, mediastīnus, opīnus, and inopīnus, paupertīnus, peregrīnus, supīnus. Also, adjectives of place; as collīnus, marīnus, vicīnus; and those derived from nouns denoting time; as matutīnus, vespertīnus; and lastly these few, not reducible to a class, Austrīnus, Caurīnus, cisternīnus, clandestīnus, repentīnus.

Sicaniam peregrīna colo ----- Ovid. Et matutīni volucrum sub culmine cantus—Virg.

VII. Adjectives in INUS, derived from inanimate things, such as plants, trees, stones, and from other nouns generally denoting matter; also from adverbs of time, or from substantives denoting the four seasons of the year, have their penultimate short; as Amaracinus, crocinus, hyacinthinus; cedrinus, faginus, oleaginus; adamantinus, amethystinus, smaragdinus; corallinus, crystallinus, murrhinus; Crastinus, diutinus, perendinus, pristinus, serotinus; Earinus, oporinus, chimerinus, therinus; also annotinus, hornotinus. To which add bombycinus, elephantinus, which seem to refer rather to the silk, and ivory, than to the animals themselves.

Et lux cum primum terris se crastina reddet—Virg.
----- Mens tantum pristina mansit—Ovid.

VIII. Diminutives in olus, ola, olum, and ulus, ula, ulum, shorten the penultimate; as urccolus, filiola, musao-

lum; Lectulus, ratiuncula, corculum, &c. Nouns in Etas and Itas; as pičtas, civitas.

Ante fugam soboles, si quis mihi parvulus aula—Virg.

IX. Adverbs in TIM lengthen the penultimate; as oppidātim, diētim, virītim, tribūtim.—Except affătim and perpětim; also stătim, which has however been lengthened by poets living in an age of degenerate Latinity.

Et velut absentem *certātim* Actæona clamant—Ovid. Stulta est fides celare quod prodas *stătim*—(Iamb.)

X. Latin denominatives in ACEUS, ANEUS, ARIUS, ATICUS, ORIUS; also verbals in ABILIS; and words in ATILIS, whatever their derivation may be, lengthen their antepenultimate; as cretāceus, testāceus; momentāncus, subitāneus; cibārius, herbārius; aquāticus, fanāticus; censorius, messorius; amābilis, revocābilis; (except stābilis, from stātum, of sisto;) pluviātilis, plicātilis, &c.

Aiunt, cum sibi sint congesta cibāria, sicut—Hor. Calcavêre pedis, nec solvit aquāticus Auster—Ovid. Sic erat instăbilis tellus, innābilis unda—Ovid.

XI. Adjectives in Icius, derived from nouns, shorten the *i* of the antepenultimate; as *gentilicius*, *patricius*, *tribunicius*. Except *novīcius* or *novītius*. But those which come from supines, or participles, lengthen the *i* of the antepenultimate; as *advectīcius*, *commendatīcius*, *suppositīcius*, &c.

Patricios omnes opibus cum provocet unus—Juv. Jam sedet in ripa, tetrumque novicius horret—Juv. Hermes suppositicius sibi ipsi (Phal.)—Mart.

The quantity of the first and middle syllables of foreign or barbarous words introduced into the Latin language, cannot be determined, unless when they fall within the general rules.

—Those first and middle syllables which cannot be ascertained by the preceding rules, must be determined by the practice or authority of the poets.

SPECIAL RULES

FOR LAST OR FINAL SYLLABLES; AND FOR MONOSYLLABLES.

OF THE VOWELS.

One general quantity of a is not ascertained. E is, generally, y, always, short. I is, generally, u, always, long. O is generally common.

RULES I. and II. -- A final.

I. A final, in words declined by cases, is short; as musa,

templă, Tydeă, lampadă.

Musă refert: Dedimus summam certaminis uni—Ovid. Templă petebamus Parnassiă.------Ovid. Hectoris hic magni fuerat comes: Hectoră circum—Virg. Quo teneam vultus mutantem Proteă 1 nodo—Hor.

Exceptions.

1. The ablative singular of the first declension is long; as

hậc musā, học Æneā.

2. The vocative singular from Greek nouns in as, is long; as O Æneā, O Pallā, from Æneas, Pallas. But Greek vocatives in a from nominatives in tes (changed to ta, in some parts of the Doric dialect) are short; as Orestă, Æetă, from Orestes, Æetes.

Prospiciens, summā placidum caput extulit undā—Virg. Quid miserum, Æneā, laceras? Jam parce sepulto—Virg.

Fecerunt furiæ, tristis Orestă, tuæ-Ovid.

II. A final, in words not declined by cases, that is, in verbs and particles, is long; as amā, frustrā, prætereā, posteā, post-illā, ergā, intrā, ā.

Et pete quod fas est; et amā, quod fæmina debes—Ovid.

Intereā magno misceri murmure pontum—Virg.

Extrā fortunam est, quidquid donatur amicis—Mart.

Exceptions.

1. The particles *ită*, *quiă*, *qiā*, and *pută* put adverbially, shorten *a*; and after the same manner Sidonius shortens *hallclujă*.

2. The prepositions contra and ultra, and numerals in ginta are sometimes found short; but approved authors

lengthen the a^2 .

¹ In the following line the accusative *Orphea* may be considered either a dactyl or spondee; *Orphea* que in medio posuit, sylvasque sequentes—Virg. But in the following, it is evidently a spondee; Non tantum Rhodope miratur, et Ismarus *Orphea*—Virg.

in Virgil; short in Ausonius and Manilius. Postilla is long in Ennius and Catullus. Postea is long in Plautus; short in the beginning of a line in Ovid; but in this last, Vossius says it should be read post čă; or, perhaps it may be used there as a dissyllable formed by Synæresis, thus postea. Posteaquam is also used by Victorinus in the beginning of a line. An able critic in the Class. Journ. Vol. XV, p. 347, (Mr. Carson, we believe, the learned

Tum sic affatur regem, atque *ită* turbidus infit—Virg. *Trigintā* capitum fœtus enixa jacebit—Virg.

RULE III. E final.

Words ending in e are generally short; as natě, cubilě, patrě, currě, nempě, antě.

Incipë, parvë puer, risu cognoscerë matrem—Virg.
Antë mare et tellus, et, quod tegit omnia, cœlum—Ovid.

Exceptions.

1. All words in e, of the first and fifth declension, are long; as Calliopē, Anchisē', fidē; also famē, originally of

Rector of the High School, Edinb.) seems to contend, and it would appear successfully, that the pronouns used long in composition, in such words as antea, postea, posteaquam, postilla, interea, &c. are not, as is generally supposed, accusatives, which would require a short quantity, but, like hac in antehac and posthac, ablatives singular feminine, the prepositions being employed absolutely, and the pronouns referring elliptically to some circumstance implied, ante and post, for instance, in antea and postea, having the same kind of relation to the unspecified time probably represented by ea, as, when associated with horis, mensibus, annis, multo, paulo, &c., they bear to the time thus specified; and that, therefore, the a of ea and illa, in such compounds, is long, like that of ablatives of the first declension. In the line from Ovid, post ea is evidently the proper reading, as marking, without any immediate reference to time, merely the succession of events. Postcaquam, in the line quoted by Smetius from Victorinus. Posteaquam rursus speculatrix arva patere, was probably intended for a trisyllable, the ea being sounded as one syllable, by Synæresis, like aured in Virgil, En. i. 698. Puta, for videlicet, is found short in Persius in the line, Hoc pută non justum est, &c.; but some read puto Ultra is long in Horace, Juvenal, Persius and others, and there is hardly a respectable authority for considering it short. Juxta, which is long in Virgil and others, is once short in Catullus. But a better reading has juncta. The termination ginta is found short in some of the old poets, and in those of a later date, as Ausonius, Manilius and others; but those who flourished during the purity of the language always made it long. In Greek, however, the termination whence it is derived is short. Quiā is long in a line of Phædrus: Ego primam tollo, nominor quia leo. But some would read quià nominer leo.

1 Achille is found short in Propertius, by Apocope, for Achilleu: Quique tuas proavus fregit Achille domos. But in this line amended, Achille becomes an Ablative. The Doric vocatives,

as Ulyssē and Achillē, are long.

the fifth. Thus also, re, die, and their compounds quare,

hodie, pridie, postridie, quotidie.

Hanc tua *Penelopē* lento tibi mittit, Ulysse—Ovid. Objicit: ille *famē* rabidâ tria guttura pandens—Virg. Et quamquam sævit pariter *rabiē* que *famē* que—Ovid. Nunc eadem, labente *diē*, convivia quærit—Virg.

2. All nouns wanting the singular; as cete, mele, Tempe.

pelage, being Greek contractions.

3. The second person singular of imperatives of the second conjugation; as docē, manē. But cave, vale, vide, re-

sponde and salve1, have e common.

Vade, valē, cavĕ ne titubes, mandataque frangas—Hor. Idque, quod ignoti faciunt, valĕ dicere saltem—Ovid. Respondē, quibus amissas reparare queam res—Hor. Quid sis nata vidē, nisi te quoque decipis ipsam—Ovid. Si quando veniet? dicet; respondĕ, poëta—Mart. Auriculas? Vidĕ, sis, ne majorum tibi forte—Pers. Lector salvĕ. Taces, dissimulasque? Vale—Martial.

4. Monosyllables are long; as \bar{e} , $m\bar{e}$, $t\bar{e}$, $s\bar{e}$, $n\bar{e}$, (lest or not).—Except the enclitics $qu\bar{e}$, $n\bar{e}$, $v\bar{e}$, and the syllabic ad-

jections pte, ce, te; as suapte, hujusce, tute.

Vera, inquit; neque me Argolica de gente negabo—Virg. Me miserum! ne prona cadas, indignave lædi—Ovid. Nostrapte culpa facimus——————Ter. Hinc omnis pendet Lucilius. Hosce secutus—Hor.

5. Adverbs in c, coming from nouns of the second declension, are long; as placidē, pulchrē, valdē (or validē), &c.: also all adverbs of the superlative degree; as doctissimē, maximē, minimē. But benē, malē, supernē, infernē, magē, the same as magis, and impunē (two words whose immediate derivation is not clearly ascertained), have their last syllable short; also the adverbs herē, and Herculē.

Præcipuē, cum jam hic trabibus contextus acernis—Virg. Si benë quid de te merui————Virg. Terra supernë² tremit, magnis concussa ruinis—Lucret.

Perhaps some of these may have originally belonged to the third conjugation also. The line from Martial is read otherwise; thus,

Quando venit? dicet: tu respondeto; poëta.

Are not final vowels, independently of association or rhythmical connexion, naturally of nearly the same quantity?

On the quantity of *superne* in this line, Lambinus says; Millies jam dixi ultimam syllabam adverbii *Superne*, breveni

Aspice, num mage sit nostrum penetrabile telum—Virg. Quam super haud ullæ poterant impune volantes—Virg. Et positum est nobis nil here præter aprum—Martial.

Verterat in fumum et cinerem, non *Hercule* miror—Hor. Adjectives neuter, of the third declension, used adverbially, retain the original short quantity of the e; as sublime, facile, dulce.

Cantantes sublimě ferent ad sidera cycni-Virg.

6. Fermē, ferē, and ohē, have ē long. Mobilis et varia est fermē natura malorum—Juv. Jamque ferē sicco subductæ littore puppes—Virg. Ohē! jam satis est, ohē! libelle—Mart.

Ausonius has shortened fere.

RULE IV.——I final.

Words ending in i are generally long; as domini, Mercuri, patri, fructui, mei, amari, doceri, audi, i, Ovidi, fili.

Quid domini facient, audent cum talia fures—Virg.
Sic fatur lacrymans classique immittit habenas—Virg.
Hinc exaudiri gemitus, iræque leonum—Virg.

I, sequere Italiam ventis, pete regna per undas—Virg.

Exceptions.

1. Greek vocatives are short; as Alexi, Amarylli, Theti, Pari, Daphni; but Simöi, or such as belong to nouns having entos, gen. are long.

O crudelis *Alexi*, nihil mea carmina curas—Virg. Frænato delphine sedens, *Theti*, nuda solebas—Ovid.

2. Greek datives singular of the third declension, from nouns increasing, are said to be varied; but they are short. *Minoidi* and *Tethyi* in Catullus, and *Palladi* in Statius, are short. *Thetidi* in Catullus, and *Paridi* and *Tyndaridi* in Propertius, are said to be long.

Palladi litoreæ celebrabat Scyros honorem—Stat.
Morte, ferox Theseus qualem Minoidi luctum—Catul.

"esse: itaque eos errare qui hoc loco, et similibus, legi volunt "Superna." This remark is intended to be applied also to the critics who wish to substitute superna for superne, in Horace, od. ii. 20, 11:—Superne, nascuntur læves. Superne is used in the same sense, Art. Poët. line 4.—Temere occurs short in Seneca.

¹ These are long by Cæsura; for the *i* of Greek cases is naturally short. Orphei may be considered as a dactyl, in Virgil, Ec. 4, 57, and, by Synæresis, it is a spondee, in G. 4, 545, 553. It here appears to be a contracted Greek dative. Neuters in *i*

3. Datives and ablatives plural of Greek nouns in si (sin before a vowel) are short; as heroisi, Troasi, Charisi.

Edidit hæc mores illis heroïsin æquos—Ovid.

Troasin invideo, quæ si lacrymosa suorum—Ovid.

4. Mihī, tibī, sibī, are common. Also ibī, nisī, ubī, and quasī; but these last are oftener short. Nisi and quasi are, perhaps, scarcely ever long, without Cæsura.

Non unquam gravis ære domum mihi dextra redibat—

Virg.

Extremum hunc, Arethusa, mihī concede laborem—Virg.

Puella senibus dulcior mihī cygnis—Mart.

Sic quasi Pythagoræ loqueris successor et hæres—Mart.

Et devicta quasi, cogatur ferre patique—Lucret.

Experiar sensus. Nihil hic nisi carmina desunt—Virg.

RULE V.—O final.

O at the end of words is common; as leo, amo, disco, quando, doceto.

Nempe tenens quod amõ, gremioque in Iäsonis hærens—

Non amo te, Sabidi; nec possum dicere quare-Mart.

Orō, qui reges consuesti tollere, cur non-Hor.

Quo fugis? Oro, mane, nec me, crudelis, amantem—Ovid.

may be added to the number of exceptions; such as gummi, meli, sinapi.—But Greek datives, formed by contraction, are always long; as Demostheni, metamorphosi; also those which come from the first declension in Greek; as Oresti, Euripidi, which are long too according to the rules of quantity for Latin Declensions.

1 Sicubi is short on the authority of Virgil, G. 3, 332; Æ. 5, 677. Necubi is also short. Alibī, ubīque and ibīdem are commonly long. Utī and velutī have the i generally long, which may happen to them as well as to some of the others reckoned common, often by Cæsura, independently on their own natural quantity. But uti or sicuti is short in a line of Lucretius, and once also in Ennius.

Sic uti quadrupedem cum primis esse videmus—Lucret. The i of utinam and utique is also short. Cui when used as a dissyllable, whether simply or in composition, generally has the i short, as in a Sapphic from Seneca, Troades, 852; but when reckoned one syllable, which it seems to be by Virgil, Horace, and Ovid, it is always considered to be long.

² Seldom in verbs, except puto, scio and nescio, and chiefly when used parenthetically, or when the vowel concludes a foot, is o made short, by any author living in the Augustan age. Scio and nescio are said to be shortened to distinguish them from the

datives or ablatives scio and nescio.

Quando pauperiem, missis ambagibus, horres—Hor. At patrias siquando domos, optataque, Pæan—Stat.

Exceptions.

1. Monosyllables are long: as \bar{o} , $pr\bar{o}$, $pr\bar{o}h$, $d\bar{o}$, $st\bar{o}$; but the compounds of the last two follow the Rule.

 $D\bar{o}$ quodvis et me victusque, volensque remitto—Virg. \bar{O} lux Dardaniæ, spes \bar{O} fidissima Teucrûm!—Virg.

2. Greek feminines ending in o, and Greek cases originally written with an o-mega, are long; as Sapphō, Cliō, Didō (in whatever case), Athō, from Athōs, Androgeō.

Cliōque, et Beroë soror, Oceanitides ambæ—Virg. In foribus letum Androgeō; tum pendere pænas—Virg.

3. Also, datives and ablatives of the second declension; as domino, deo, pondo, to which add another ablative, ergo, for the sake of, ergo, signifying therefore, belonging to the Rule.

Tum caput ipsi aufert dominō, truncumque relinquit—

Invadunt urbem somno vinoque sepultam—Virg.

4. Also, Greek genitives from nouns of the Attic dialect,

in ws; as Androgeo, Atho.—See Excep. 2.

5. Adverbs formed from nouns are long; as $cert\bar{o}$, $fals\bar{o}$, $merit\bar{o}$, $tant\bar{o}$, $quant\bar{o}$, $paul\bar{o}$, $continu\bar{o}$, $mult\bar{o}$; also $ill\bar{o}$, $qu\bar{o}$, $e\bar{o}$, and the compounds, $qu\bar{o}vis$, $qu\bar{o}cunque$.—To which add, $citr\bar{o}$, $intr\bar{o}$, and $ultr\bar{o}$.—But the following, though oftener long, are sometimes short; denuo, sero, mutuo, postremo, vero. Porro, retro, ideirco, adeo, ideo, may likewise be deemed common; to which have been added crebro and sedulo. Profecto and subito, both naturally long, have been shortened, the one by Ter. Maurus, the other by Seneca.— $Mod\bar{o}$ and its compounds are short; as $quomod\bar{o}$, $dummod\bar{o}$, $postmod\bar{o}$.

¹ The words first noticed, in No. 5, among the Exceptions, are, obviously, ablatives, and long by Except. 3. Several of the words also in the third division of No. 5 are likewise ablatives, denuo being de novo, and profecto, pro facto; but porro is an ablative of no Latin noun, and, in Greek, in which it is an adverb, its final o is long.

Modo, when separated from the words with which it is usually compounded, might be expected to assume its natural quantity,

according to Except. 3.

Nunc, quo quamque $mod\bar{o}$ possis cognoscere, dicam—Virg. But here it is long by Cæsura. In the following line, with an enclitic, which, by attracting the ictus metricus, strengthens the preceding syllable, it is long:

Hic aliud majus miseris multoque tremendum—Virg. Heu sero revocatur amor, seroque juventus—Tibull. Vester porro labor focundior, historiarum—Juv. Sero memor thalami, mæstæ solatia matri—Stat.

Hic inter densas corvlos modo namque gemellos—Virg. 6. Ambo, duo, scio, nescio, puto, imo, illico, cedo the imperative, ego, homo, cito, (which is the adjective used adverbially,) are generally considered short.

Sic ubi nesció quis Lycia de gente virorum—Ovid. At puto non ultro, nec quicquam tale rogantem—Ovid. Tam cito commisi properatis verba tabellis—Ovid. Ast egŏ quæ divûm incedo regina, Jovisque—Virg. Præterea duo nec tutâ mihi valle reperti—Virg. Europamque Asiamque, duō vel maxima terræ—Auson.

7. Gerunds in do are always made long by Virgil; but

others sometimes shorten them 1.

Cætera nequaquam simili ratione modoque—Hor. Horace concludes two other lines with ratione mod oque. however, some persons might suspect the effect of Cæsura, but, it would appear, without sufficient reason; for modoque may be regarded as one trisyllabic word, of which que is a constituent part, in the same way as liminaque is a quadrisyllabic, at the beginning of a line in Virgil, in which que, otherwise short, becomes long, merely by being considered as the final syllable of a word under Cæsura. In composition I have always found the o final Used adverbially, it seems to be generally short; thus

Cum tribus annellis modo læva Priscus inani-Hor. Tu modo nascenti puero quo ferrea primum—Virg.

In the following line it is long;

Hoc quid putemus esse? qui modo scurra-Catull. But, here it may be observed, that, one particular instance excepted, Catullus lengthens a short final vowel before s and another consonant. In the following Anapæstic, however, from Seneca, it is long: Quæ fa|mă modo | venit ad aures. But, perhaps, this example may not be quite satisfactory to those who consider the Octavia the worst of all the plays that bear the name of Seneca. In the following Anapæstic, it is short, being in a different part of the foot: Utinam | modo no stra redirent -Boeth. Upon the whole, excluding the influence of ictus and cæsura, it would appear, that the short quantity of modo is more common, and better established, than the long. In the following Iambic, however, it is long; Excede, pietas; si modo nostrâ in domo-Senec.

Prosper shortens omnino; but it is better to lengthen it with

Virgil.

Gerunds are verbal nouns, the quantity of which might be ascertained by Except. 3; and it seems strange that it is ever vaPer nemora, atque altos *quærendō* bucula lucos—Virg. Plurimus hic æger moritur *vigilandō*, sed illum—Juv. Aufer et ipse meum pariter *medicandō* dolorem—Tibul.

RULE VI.—U final.

Words ending in u are long; as $vult\bar{u}$, $corn\bar{u}$, $Panth\bar{u}$, $dict\bar{u}$, $di\bar{u}$.

Præterea lumen per cornū transit: at imber—Lucret.

Vultū quo cœlum tempestatesque serenat—Virg.

Sed, $t\bar{u}$ quod nolles, voluit miserabile fatum—Ovid.

Quo res summa loco, Panthū? quam prendimus arcem—Virg.

The diphthong of vocatives in eu does not appear to be

ever dissolved:

Scis, *Protēu*, scis ipse; neque est te fallere cuiquam—Virg. Note.—*Indŭ* for *in*, and *nenŭ* for *non*, both used by Lucretius, the former likewise by others, in composition, as *indŭperator*, *indŭ*- or *endŏ-gredior*, have the *ŭ* short.

Indŭ manu validas potis est moderanter habenas—Luc.

Nenŭ queunt rapidi contra constare leones--Lucr.

ried.—Were I to hazard a conjecture concerning the probable cause of this variation, it would be founded upon an analysis of the gerund, the constituent parts of which seem to me to be the radical letters of the verb and the antient preposition endŏ, or indŭ, (see Rule VI.) which is equivalent to in. Thus we find in the Twelve Tables the following law:

Hominem mortuum endo urbe nei sepeleito, neive urito. Let not

a dead person be buried nor burnt in the city.

The e is used in the Greek én and éndon, and in the French en, in preference to i. The i is used in Latin and English, in pre-

ference to e.

The same endo we find in the following lines of Lucretius, Quod genus endo mari, &c. Endogredi sceleris, &c., and in other parts. This endo or indu, having its final syllable short, appears to me to be the final part of Latin gerunds, and of those of the languages of Europe, antient and modern; and hence perhaps arises the short quantity sometimes assigned to Latin gerunds. Docendo, in Latin, means, IN teaching. Vendendo, in Portuguese, means selling, or IN sale. Durmiendo, in Spanish, sleeping, or IN sleep. Werkende, in Dutch, working, or IN work. Agissand (t), in French, acting, or IN act. The same observation I have reason to think applicable to the Saxon, Gothic, Islandic, and German languages; and were I disposed to advance further into the field of conjecture, I might endeavour to show that some affinity exists between endo, and the ing of our English participle or gerund. A few additional remarks may be found in the writer's Eng. Gram. p. 140.

Also, words ending in us short, when, to prevent the vowel from becoming long by position, the s is elided; as nunciu for nuncius, plenu for plenus.

Vicimus O socii, et magnam pugnavimii pugnam—En-

nius.

RULE VII .-- Y final.

Words ending in y are short; as $Mol\tilde{y}$, $Tiph\tilde{y}$, $chel\tilde{y}$, $Te-th\tilde{y}$.

Moly vocant superi -------Ovid.

Note.—When y is a contraction, as in Tethy instead of Tethyi the dative, it is long by the fourth general Rule.

Quam Tethy longinqua dies, Glaucoque repôstam—Val.

Flac.

OF CONSONANTS.

Every consonant at the end of a word, preceded by a single vowel, generally makes that vowel short, unless followed by a word beginning with a consonant; except c and n, which have the preceding vowel generally long. As, es, os, are generally long; is, us and ys, generally short.

RULE VIII. -- B final.

Latin words ending in b are short; foreign words commonly long; as $\check{a}b$, $\check{b}b$, $J\bar{o}b$, $Jac\bar{o}b$.

Magnus ab integro sec'lorum nascitur ordo—Virg.

RULE IX.—C final.

Words ending in c are long; as $\bar{a}c$, $s\bar{i}c$, $h\bar{i}c$ (adverb), $d\bar{u}c$, $ill\bar{u}c$.

Sic oculos, sic ille manus, sic ora ferebat—Virg. $H\bar{o}c^{4}$ erat, alma parens - - - - - - - Virg.

Hoc age, ne mutata retrorsum te ferat aura—Hor.

Atque hic ingentem comitum affluxisse novorum—Virg.

Exceptions.

1. Něc and doněc are short.

- 2. Hic^{1} , the pronoun, is common; also fac^{1} , to which some add hoc^{1} of the nominative and accusative.
- ¹ It is contended by the antient grammarians that the pronoun hic is always short by nature; and that when it is found long, before a word beginning with a vowel, it is owing to the syllabic adjection ce being supposed to belong to it, the c of which (and, as it generally happens, the c likewise) is cut off by synalæpha; and

Parve, něc invideo, sine me, liber, ibis in urbem—Ovid. Cogere doněc oves stabulis, numerumque referre—Virg. Hic vir, hře est, tibi quem promitti sæpius audis—Virg. Hic gladio fidens, hře acer et arduus hasta—Virg.

RULE X.—D final.

Words ending in d are short, in Latin; but foreign words are generally long; as quid, ad, apid, illid, sed; Benadad, David, Bogūd. These, however, are varied.

Quicquid id est, timeo Danaos et dona ferentes-Virg.

RULE XI.—-L final.

Words ending in l are short; as tribunăl, Asdrubăl, fel, pol, consul, procul.

Non semel et Satyros eluserat illa sequentes-Ovid.

Exceptions.

1. Hebrew words are generally long; as Daniël, Michaël, Nabāl, Saūl.

2. Sāl¹, sōl, and nīl¹, are long.

Omnia sub pedibus, quà sol utrumque recurrens-Virg.

that, therefore, the remaining c must be supposed to possess the force of a double letter. Be this as it may, it certainly is found more frequently long than short. The same kind of assertion has been applied to hoc of the nominative and accusative, which also the antient grammarians considered as naturally short; so that, with regard to both, it is contended, that when we find these cases long (which they generally are) before a word beginning with a vowel, we are to consider that the long quantity arises from the ce which is suppressed. But there is no question about hoc of the ablative, which is always long.

Quondam hōc indigenæ vivebant more, priusquam—Juv. The following are the usual authorities cited for determining

the quantity of fac.

Non possunt; făc enim minimis e partibus esse—Lucret. Hos fāc Armenios, hæc est Danaeia Persis—Ovid.

Signa rarius, aut semel făc illud-(Phal.) Mart.

But the fac of the middle example has been changed, in corrected editions, into facito; so that it seems safer, according to the opinion of Alvarez, to consider fac as short.

Nil is long, as being a contraction of nihil.

Nīl aliud video, quo te credamus amicum-Mart.

As to sal, I find only one authority quoted by Smetius, from Ausonius, and another by Alvarez, from Statius, to prove it to be long; but these authorities are not perhaps satisfactory, when it is considered that sal is formed, by apocope, from the obsolete sale with a short.

 $S\bar{a}l$, oleum, panis, mel, piper, herba, novem—Auson. Non $s\bar{a}l$, oxyporumve, caseusve—Stat.

RULE XII. - M final.

M at the end of words was, antiently, short, and was not, as now, elided, when followed by a vowel.

Insignita ferè tum millia militum octo-Ennius.

It is still short in *circum* and *com* (con) in composition with words beginning with a vowel; as *circumeo*, *circumago*.

Cujus non hederæ circumicre caput—Propert. Quo te circumagas - - - - - - Juv.

Vivite, lurcones, comedones, vivite ventres!—Lucil. If it be ever found long, before a vowel, it must be by

cæsura.

RULE XIII.——N final.

N at the end of words is long; as $\bar{e}n$, $spl\bar{e}n$, $qu\bar{i}n$, $s\bar{n}n$, $n\bar{o}n$. Also in Greek nouns masculine and feminine; as $Tit\bar{a}n$, $Hym\bar{e}n$, $Sir\bar{e}n$, $Salam\bar{i}n$, $Phorc\bar{y}n$; and $Actac\bar{o}n$, $Lacedaem\bar{o}n$, $Plat\bar{o}n$, and the like written with ω (omega); also in Greek accusatives of the first declension, coming from nominatives in As, Es, and E, long; as Anchisen, Calliopen; and in genitives plural; as $Myrmidon\bar{o}n$, $Cimmeri\bar{o}n$, $epigrammat\bar{o}n$.

Exceptions.

1. Nouns ending in *en*, having *inis* in the genitive, with the penultimate short, are short; as *carmen*, *crimen*, *numen*, *-inis*.

Addunt et titulum; titulus breve carmen habebat—Ovid.

2. Also nouns in on, of the singular number, which in Greek are written with o (omicron), and which are in Latin, of the second declension; as Iliön, Erotiön, Pylön.—But not Greek accusatives in on of the Attic dialect, having w (omega) in the original; as Athön, Androgeön.

Laudabunt alii claram *Rhodŏn*, aut Mitylenen—Hor.

In one instance Horace retains the m.

Quam laudas, pluma? Cocto num adest honor idem? Thus the line is read by Dacier, Bentley, and Wakefield; but in the Dauphin edition it is thus given;

Quam laudas, plumâ? Coctove num adest honor idem?--Sat. ii. 2, 28.

3. N is short in Greek accusatives, whatever the declension may be, of nouns the final syllable of whose nominative is short; as Majan, Æginan, Orpheon, Alexin, Ibin, chelyn, Ityn.

Namque ferunt raptam patriis Ægimm ab undis—Stat. Scorpion, atque aliter curvantem brachia Cancrum—Ovid. Tantaque nox animi est, Ityn huc arcessite, dixit—Ovid.

1. Än, in, forsän, forsitän, tamen, attamen, veruntamen, viden, satin, have n short.

Mittite; försän et hæc olim meminisse juvabit—Virg. Educet. Viděn' ut geminæ stent vertice cristæ—Virg. Satin' id est? Nescio, hercle; tantum jussu' sum—Ter.

RULE XIV. -- R final.

Words ending in r are short; as calcar, Hamilear, imber, pater, mater, vir, Hector, cor, turtur, martyr, precor, mittier, semper, præter, amamur, audiuntur.

Tum pater omnipotens misso perfregit Olympum—Ovid. Inque cor³ hamata percussit arundine Ditem—Ovid. Semper honos, nomenque tuum, laudesque manebunt—

Inseruisse manus, impure ac semivir, audes?—Lucan.

hanc precor, optime, pro me—Virg.

Ille operum custos, illum admirantur, et omnes—Virg.

quibus Hector ab oris—Virg.

To these are commonly added some words suffering an apocope of de, as exin', dein', proin', but without decisive authorities. And along with viden' and satin' are likewise joined scin', audin', nostin', ain', nemon', mcn', and the like. Nostin', indeed, if late editions are correct, is short in Ovid, Epist. Medeæ; but nemon' is twice long in Horace. The others cannot be safely used, unless followed by a consonant; when, in course, they are long.

Greek datives in sin have been noticed under Rule IV.——I final.

^a Cor long is attributed to Ovid: but the line, in which it is said to be thus found, is read differently in corrected editions.

Molle meum levibus cor est violabile telis.

Molle meum levibusque cor est violabile telis--Ep. xv. 79. Vir long has been likewise said to be found in Ovid; but that too arose from an erroneous reading.

De grege nunc tibi vir, et de grege natus habendus.

Better thus;

De grege nunc tibi vir, nunc de grege natus habendus—Met. 1. 660.

In the last vir is long, merely by its position.

Exceptions.

1. Greek nouns, and such as have $\bar{e}ris$ in the genitive, with the penultimate long, are long; as $crat\bar{e}r$, $stat\bar{e}r$, $v\bar{e}r$, $S\bar{e}r$, $Recim\bar{e}r$, $-\bar{e}ris$; also $Ib\bar{e}r$, which has $Ib\bar{e}ris$ as well as $Ib\bar{e}ris$; and $a\bar{e}r$ and $acth\bar{e}r$, which have the penultimate of their genitive short. $Celtib\bar{e}r$, a compound of $Ib\bar{e}r$, is common.

Vêr erat æternum, placidique tepentibus auris—Ovid. Si tibi durus Ibēr, aut si tibi terga dedisset—Lucan. Aēr a tergo quasi provehat atque propellat—Lucret. Ducit ad auriferas quod me Salo Celtiber oras—Mart. Nunc Celtiber es: Celtiberià in terrà—Catull.

Nunc Celtibēr es : Celtiberiâ in terrâ—Catull. Legit Eois Sēr arboribus—Seneca.

2. These monosyllables are long, $f\bar{a}r$, $l\bar{a}r^1$, $N\bar{a}r$, $c\bar{u}r$, $f\bar{u}r$, and $p\bar{a}r^1$ with its compounds, compār, dispār, impār.

Pār ætas, par forma fuit; primasque magistris—Ovid. Ludere pār impār, equitare in arundine longa—Hor. Exagitant et Lār, et turba Diania fures—Ovid. Cūr, inquit, diversus abis? huc dirige gressum—Virg.

RULE XV .--- AS final.

Words ending in as are long; as mās, vās, pietās, Pallās (Pallantis), Thomās, mensās, legās, amās, forās.

Quid meus *Æneās* in te committere tantum?—Virg. *Hās* autem *terrās*, Italique hanc littoris oram—Virg. Et pete quod *fās* est, et ama, quod fæmina debes—Ovid. Concilias: tu *dās* epulis accumbere divûm—Virg. Hinc *Pallās* instat et urget—Virg.

Exceptions.

1. Greek nouns whose genitive ends in ădis or ădos are short; as Pallăs, Arcăs, lampăs, Iliăs, -ădis. To which add the Latin noun, anăs, and Latin nouns in as, formed after the manner of Greek patronymics; as Appiăs.

Pallas Erichthonium, prolem sine matre creatam—Ovid.

It has been disputed whether par and Lar ought to be considered long, since their increase is short, and since ar of the nominative is short in other nouns which increase short, and even in those which increase long. Par and its compounds are certainly generally found long, and although this may arise from diastole, it does not appear safe to change the quantity usually assigned them. Par, impar, and dispar are found long in Horace. The latter two are, however, short in Prudentius. Yet notwithstanding this authority, and that also of Martianus Capella and Avienus, added to the argument founded on analogy, it is safer, as already observed, to consider the last syllable of these words as long.

Et pictis anăs enotata, pennis—Petron. Appiăs expressis aëra pulsat aquis—Ovid.

2. Also the accusative plural of the third declension of Greek nouns; as crateras, Cyclopas, heroas, Troas, heroidas, Hectoras.

Jupiter ad veteres supplex heroïdăs ibat—Ovid. Existunt montes, et sparsas Cycladăs augent—Ovid.

RULE XVI. -- ES final.

Words ending in es are long; as Alcidēs, Circes, Penelopes, quies, hæres, locuples, sermones, res, ames, doces, leges, esses, decies, posses, amavisses; the nominatives and vocatives plural of Greek nouns originally written with eig contracted from ess; as hereses, crises, phrases; the antient genitive of the fifth declension, as rabies.

An, quæ per totam rēs est notissima Lesbon—Ovid. Si modo dēs illis cultus, similesque paratus—Ovid. Quodcumque est, rabiēs unde illæc germina turgent— Lucret.

Exceptions.

1. The nominatives and vocatives plural of Greek nouns increasing (not in 505) short in the singular, are short; as Amazonës, Arcadës, Delphinës, Naiadës, gryphës, Phrygës'. To which may be added Greek vocatives singular in es coming from nominatives in es not formed from eus of the Doric dialect, and having their genitive in eos; as Demosthenës, Socratës.

Pamphagus, et Dorceus, et Oribasus; Arcades omnes—

Ovid,

Troades; et patriæ fumantia tecta reliquunt-Ovid.

2. Es from sum is short², and in the compounds; as ades, abes, prodes, potes, &c.; and in the preposition penes.

Quisquis es, hoc poteras mecum considere saxo—Ovid. Cui deus, At conjux quoniam mea non potes esse—Ovid.

These nouns, when they assume, in the accusative plural, the Latin termination es, instead of as, have it long, according to the

quantity of Latin syllables.

² Vossius, following Servius, asserts that es of edo, being a contraction of edis, is long; but he cites no authorities. The es of sum, and the es of edo, notwithstanding the latter's government of a case, in such examples, as Est flamma medullas—Virg. bona—Plaut. olivas—Hor. animum—Hor. are, without doubt, one and the same word, and consequently both short. Ambens, too, is used by Lucretius, V. 397, in the sense of ambedens.

Quem penes arbitrium est, et jus, et norma loquendi-Hor.

3. Greek neuters in es; as cacoethes, hippomanes.

Scribendi cacoethes, et ægro in corde senescit-Juven.

4. Latin nouns of the third declension in es, whose genitives have a short increment; as hebes, ales, pedes, limes, obses.—But es is long in these following; Ceres, paries, aries, abies, pes, and compounds; as bipes, alipes, tripes, sonipes, to which some add præpes, a derivative of præpeto.

Myrmidonum, Dolopumve, aut duri milës Ulyssei—Virg. Æthereâ quos lapsa plagâ Jovis alës aperto—Virg.

Hic farta premitur angulo Ceres omni-Mart.

Pēs etiam et camuris hirtæ sub cornibus aures—Virg. Stat sonipēs et fræna ferox spumantia mandit—Virg.

RULE XVII.——IS final.

Exceptions.

1. All plural cases in is are long: as pennīs, nobīs, vobīs; omnīs and urbīs, for omnes and urbes; quīs, and queīs, for quibus.

Sed pater omnipotens *speluncīs* abdidit atris—Virg. Atque utinam ex *vobīs* unus, vestrique fuissem—Virg. *Quīs* ante ora patrum Trojæ sub mænibus altis—Virg.

Wherever paries, aries and abies are found long, there happens to be a cæsura; and perhaps Ceres and pes are long by diastole; so that it is not very improbable, on the principle of analogy, that all of them may belong to the general Exceptions. Ausonius shortens bipes and tripes; and Probus observes that alipes and sonipes are likewise short. The contrary, however, appears in Virgil, Lucan, and Horace; but it is to be observed, that some of the above-mentioned words could not be introduced into heroic verse, without the influence of a figure to lengthen their final syllable.

—Præpes is short in Virgil; it comes not from pes, but from προπετής, prævolans.

Acer, anhelanti similis; quem præpës ab Ida. Tigrës, ascribed to Ovid, is rejected by the best critics. According to Greek analogy, some would read tigris; Quis scit, an hæc sævas insula tigris habet?—Ep. 10, 86, the Greek is in such cases being short. This line has been written thus; Quis scit, an

hæc sævas tigridas insula habet--Ed. Burman.

2. The nominative in is is long, when the genitive ends in *ītis*, *īnis*, or *ēntis*, with the penultimate long; as *līs*, *Sam-nīs*, *Salamīs*, *Simoīs*.

Grammatici certant, et adhuc sub judice *līs* est—Hor. *Samnīs* in ludo ac rudibus cuivis satis asper—Lucil.

3. Is is long in the adverbs gratis and $foris^1$; in the noun glis; and in vis, as a noun and verb.

Ignea convexi vīs, et sine pondere cœli—Ovid. Si vīs esse aliquis. Probitas laudatur et alget—Juv.

4. All second persons singular in is are long; when the second persons plural have *itis* with the penultimate long; as *cīs*, audīs, abīs, fīs, possīs, sīs, īs, velīs, nolīs, &c.

Nescis, heu! nescis dominæ fastidia Romæ-Mart.

Quae tibi causa viæ: cur sīs, Arethusa, sacer fons—Ovid. Ris of the perfect is commonly considered short; ris of the future is by some considered short also, and by others, with more reason, common; but the same observations as were made on the quantity of rimus and ritis are applicable to ris, and probably to the last syllable of ausis and faxis likewise. From the usual import of the two tenses, and from analogy, it may be inferred that they were all common.

Dixeris egregiè notum si callidà verbum-Hor.

Quas gentes Italûm, aut quas non oraveris urbes—Virg. Quemcumque miserum viderīs hominem scias—Seneca.

Si thure placaris et hornâ—Hor.

Da mihi te placidum; dederīs in carmine vires—Ovid.

Miscucris elixa, simul conchylia turdis—Hor.

But the objection of casura may be brought against the last two examples, and against most of the others which I have seen. Still, however, when it is considered that the ri

1 It is not improbable that gratis and foris may be ablatives: and, consequently, they are long by Exception 1. The former is long in Martial, the latter in Horace, with cæsura; but if that be considered as an objection, it is one which, rigidly insisted on, would destroy the authority of many of the examples to be found in works on Prosody, for establishing the quantity of final syllables. Phædrus, however, furnishes an example; Gratis anhelans, multa agendo nil agens. In making the preceding remark, however, we do not mean to intimate, that, if the short quantity of a syllable is properly established, and it is found long only in casura or position, its quantity is common; it is, in this case, decidedly short. But such is sometimes the structure of a word, that it may be impossible, -at least in Hexameter verse, whence, for obvious reasons, authorities are usually adduced, -- to exemplify the acknowledged long quantity of the syllable, without the coincidence of easura.

in rimus and ritis is found long, we are authorized to conclude, from the analogy between the two numbers in regard to quantity, that ris is long or common in its own nature, and not by cæsura 1.

RULE XVIII .-- OS final.

Words ending in os are long; as flos, nepos, honos, heros, Minos, viros, bonos, nos, vos, os (oris), Tros.

Flōs apprimà tenax — — — Virg.

Vōs agitate fugam — — Virg.

Os homini sublime dedit, cœlumque tueri — Ovid.

Trōs, ait, Ænea, cessas? — — Virg.

Priami nepōs Hectoreus, et letum oppetat—Seneca.

Exceptions.

1. Greek genitives in os, from whatever nominatives they come, are short; as Arcados, Tethyos, Tercos, Orpheos.

Pallados admonitu — — — — — Ovid. Tethyos unda vagæ lunaribus æstuet horis—Lucan.

But genitives in cos, from nouns in is or eus, would be long, by imitation of the Attic dialect.

2. Compos, impos, and os (ossis), with its compound exos,

have the final syllable short.

Insequere et voti postmodo *compŏs* eris—Ovid. *Exŏs* et exsanguis tumidos perfluctuat artus—Lucret.

¹ The endeavour to prove the quantity of rimus and ritis by that of ris, and the quantity of ris by that of rimus and ritis, may perhaps be thought to border a little upon reasoning in a circle. But when we consider that, in the other tenses, wherever we find one syllable more in the first or second person plural than in the second person singular, we observe an agreement, in regard to quantity, between the penultimate of such first or second person plural and the final syllable of the second person singular, except where a difference is caused by position, there certainly does not seem to be an impropriety in using them respectively to confirm or to ascertain the quantity of one another. That such analogy does subsist, may be seen in the following examples; amas, amamus, amātis; docēs, docēmus, docētis; legīs, legīmus, legītis; bīs, bīmus, bitis of the first and second conjugation. It should be observed however that ris, rimus, and ritis, of ero and potero, are commonly short.

Fortunate puer, tu nunc *cris* alter ab illo—Virg. But as from their termination, these two tenses appear to have been originally subjunctive or future perfect, it is probable that they had *ris*, *rimus*, *ritis*, common. Juvencus, Tertullian, and Paulinus lengthen the *ri* of *crimus* and *poterimus*. See p. 128.

3. Greek nominatives and vocatives of the second declension have os short; as Claros, Tenedos, Lesbos, Atropos, But nouns of the Attic dialect, having their genitive in o, are long; as Androgeos, Athos: also nouns of the same dialect. which have changed laos (λαος) into leos (λεως); as Peneleos, Meneleos.

Et Claros, et Tenedos, Pataræaque regia servit—Ovid. Et Tyros instabilis, pretiosaque murice Sidon—Luc.

4. Greek neuters in os are short; as Argos, epos, chaos, melŏs.

Facta canit pede ter percusso: forte epos acer—Hor. Et Chaos et Phlegethon, loca nocte silentia latè-Virg.

RULE XIX.——US final.

Words ending in us are short; as annus, bonus, tempus, intereus, illius, fontibus, dicimus, intus, penitus, tenus; likewise us of the nominative and vocative singular of the fourth declension.

Ipse, ubi tempus erit, omnes in fonte lavabo—Virg. O patria! o divûm domŭs Ilium! et inclyta bello—Virg. Venimus; et latos indagine cinximus agros—Ovid.

Exceptions.

1. Monosyllables are long; as grūs, jūs, rūs, plūs. Romæ rūs optas, absentem rusticus urbem-Hor. Plūs etiam quam quod Superis contingere fas sit—Ovid.

2. Also genitives of feminine nouns in o; as Clius, Sap-

phūs, Mantus.

Didus atque suum misceri sanguine sanguen-Varro.

3. Genitives singular, and nominatives, accusatives and vocatives plural, of the fourth declension, all being contractions, have us long; as fructūs, manūs.

Quale manus addunt ebori decus, aut ubi flavo-Virg. Pars secreta domūs ebore et testudine cultos—Ovid. Hosne mihi fructūs; hunc fertilitatis honorem—Ovid.

Portus aquoreis sueta insignire tropais-Sil.

4. Also nouns having the genitive in ūris, ūtis, ūdis, the

Palus is once short in Horace, perhaps by systole.

Regis opus, sterilisque diu palŭs, aptaque remis-Art. Poët. 65. Some critics, however, pronounce the text to be incorrect, and would read thus; Regis opus; sterilisve palus diŭ, aptaque remis, long vowels, when not cut off, being regarded as common; or diu may be considered a diphthongal sound.

penultimate long; and in ūntis, and podis, or podos; as tellūs, virtūs, palūs, incūs; Opūs, Amathūs; tripūs, Oedipūs.

Ridet ager; neque adhuc virtūs in frondibus ulla est-

Ovid.

Dicitur, et tenebrosa palūs Acheronte refuso—Virg. Est Amathūs, est celsa mihi Paphos, atque Cythera—Virg.

Hic Oedipūs Ægea tranabit freta—Seneca.

5. Also those nouns, written in Greek with the diphthong ous, which have u in their vocative; as Panthūs, o Panthu; and our Saviour's sacred name, Iësūs.

Et cœlo et terris venerandum nomen Iësūs.

The diphthong eus is long; as Orpheus; but eus as a dissyllable is short; as Orpheus, of the second declension.

Panthūs Othryades, arcis Phœbique sacerdos—Virg. Addunt se socios Riphēus, et maximus annis—Virg.

RULE XX --- YS final.

Words ending in ys are short; as Capys, chelys, chlamys. At Capys, et quorum melior sententia menti—Virg. Tethys et extremo sæpe recepta loco est—Ovid.

Certain nouns, said to form the nominative in yn also, are mentioned as exceptions; such as Gortys, Phorcys, Trachys. To these may be added contracted plurals; as Erinnys for Erinnyes, or Erinnyas. Tethys is said to be sometimes long; but then it is, as far as I have discovered, accompanied by casura.

Teque sibi generum Tethis emat omnibus undis-Virg.

RULE XXI.—T final.

Words ending in t preceded by a single vowel, are short; as caput, amat, ut, et.

Verum hæc tantum alias inter caput extulit urbes-Virg.

Exceptions.

1. T is sometimes long by crasis, or syncope; as redit for redit or redivit, amát for amāvit.

Magnus civis obit, et formidatus Othoni-Juven.

Dum trepidant, it hasta Tago per tempus utrumque—Virg.

Disturbāt urbes, et terræ motus obortus-Lucret.

To which add polypūs, and melampūs when of the third declension; but when of the second, us of the three last may be short.

Utque sub æquoribus deprensum polypūs hostem—Ovid.

In these examples, obît, ît, and disturbât, are put for obiit, iit, and disturbavit. The first and the last example are long, too, by cæsura.

RULE XXII.

FINAL SYLLABLE OF A VERSE.

The last syllable of every verse (except the Anapæstic, and the Ionic a minore) is considered common; that is, if the syllable be naturally long, it may be reckoned short, if it suits the verse, and vice versâ.

Gens inimica mihi Tyrrhenum navigat æquōr—Virg. In this, ŏr, naturally short, forms the second syllable of a

spondee.

Crescit occulto velut arbor ævo-Hor.

In this Sapphic, the word $\bar{\alpha}v\bar{o}$, which is naturally a spondee, forms a trochee, a foot consisting of a long and a short syllable.

OF ACCENT.

As Quantity means the length of time employed by the voice, so Accent denotes the elevation or depression of the voice in pronouncing a syllable: and is sometimes called the *Tone*.

The accents are three, the Acute, the Grave, and the Cir-

cumflex.

The acute is said to sharpen, or elevate a syllable; and is thus marked, dóminus.

The grave is said to sink or depress it; and is thus marked,

doctè.

The *circumflex* is defined to be a compound accent, first elevating and then depressing, or, perhaps, *vice versá*; and as it requires greater time than either of the former, it is never put over any but a long syllable; and is thus marked, *amáre*, i. e. *amáàre*.

RULES FOR THE ACCENTS.

I. Monosyllables, long by nature, receive the circumflex; as $fl\hat{o}s$, $sp\hat{e}s$, \hat{a} , \hat{e} . But if they are short, or long by position only, they take the acute; as vir, $f\acute{a}x$, $m\acute{e}ns$.

II. Dissyllables always have the grave accent on their last syllable. If the first syllable be long by nature, and

the second short, it receives the circumflex; as Rôma, flóris, lúna; otherwise, the acute; as hômo, párens, insons.

In speaking of improper pronunciation as arising from the want of due attention to quantity and accent, Mr. Pickbourn, the ingenious author of a dissertation on the English verb, observes (Monthly Magazine, No. 135,)-" That scholars err in their pronunciation of, 1st, words of two syllables having the first short, as eques; 2ndly, words of three syllables having the first long and the second short, as sidera; 3dly, polysyllables accented on the antepenultimate, as juvenilibus, interea, &c.; and, lastly, words ending in a long vowel, as domini, or in a long vowel and a single consonant, as dominis. These errors arise in part from the want of distinguishing between the long and short powers of the vowels. For, as they are all of them by nature capable of being either long or short, every long vowel being equal to two short ones, this is a distinction of the greatest importance. The principal source of our mistakes on this subject is the indistinct and confused notion which we have of accent. For, when it falls on a short syllable, we often make that syllable long; and when it falls on a long one, we sometimes make it short. Accent does certainly affect quantity; that is, it makes the accented syllable a little longer than it would be without it. But its operation is never so great as to make a short syllable become long, nor does the privation of accent make a long syllable become short; for there are degrees of time both in long and short syllables. All short syllables are not equally short; nor are alllong ones equally long. This remark is fully confirmed by a passage quoted by Dr. Warner (in his Metron ariston) from Quinctilian: - Et longis longiores, et brevibus sunt breviores syllabæ. The second syllable of amavit, being accented, is a little longer than the second syllable of amaverunt, though they are both long syllables; and the first syllable in legi, being accented, is a little longer than the second, or than the first syllable of legisti, which is deprived of accent, though they are all long syllables. In pronouncing such words as animus, dominus, oculus, &c., though the vowels retain their short sound, yet the stroke of the voice laid on the first syllable increases the impression which that syllable makes on the ear, and, consequently, diminishes the impression made by that which follows it.

"Quinctilian and all succeeding grammarians inform us that the Latin acute accent is never laid on the last syllable of a word; that in dissyllables and trisyllables having the second syllable short, it invariably falls on the first syllable; and that in polysyllables having the penultimate short, it lies on the antepenultimate. In the English language dissyllables accented on the first syllable generally have that syllable long. We have, therefore, very improperly applied this rule to all Latin dissyllables, because they are accented on the first syllable. Hence we say eques, comes, maser,

III. Polysyllables, if the penultimate be long, and the last syllable short, have the circumflex on the penultimate; as Românus, Imperâtor, Justiniânus. If both the penulti-

nemus, vigor, rigor, liquor, timor, &c. making the first syllables long, or, at least, nearly so. Why do we not pronounce the first syllables of eques, comes, miser, nemus, as we do the first syllables of their genitives, equitis, comitis, miseri, nemoris? And why do we not pronounce such words as vigor, rigor, liquor as we do the English words vigour, rigour, liquor? And the first syllable in timor, as we do the first syllable in timoris, and of the English word timorous? If we pronounced the first syllable of the adjective malus, as we do the first syllable of the English word malice, we should properly distinguish it from malus, an apple-tree. By an attention to this rule we should easily distinguish between the present and preterperfect tenses of many verbs, as venit and vēnit, fugit and fugit, legit and legit, &c. Again, many English words of three syllables, accented on the first, have that syllable short; we have, therefore, hastily concluded that all Latin trisyllables, accented on the first, must have that syllable short, unless it be long by position, and, therefore, we very improperly say sidera, limina, limite, semine, viribus, dicere, scribere, &c. Why do we not pronounce the first syllables of these words with a long vowel sound, in the same manner in which we pronounce the first syllables of sīdus, līmen, līmes, sēmen, vīres, dīco, scrībo, &c. ? for all vowels long in themselves, and not by position, should certainly be uttered with a long vowel sound. An attention to this remark would show the difference between populus, a people, and populus, a poplar-tree. In polysyllables accented on the antepenultimate we sometimes err in a similar manner to the last case, by giving a short sound to a vowel long by nature, as in juvenīlibus, and, at other times, by giving a long sound to a vowel naturally short, as in interca. But, in words of this kind, we do not universally err; for I do not remember that I ever heard a scholar pronounce such words as depositum, consilium, exilium, excidium, &c. improperly. Lastly, words ending in a long vowel, as domini, or in a long vowel followed by a single consonant, such as datives and ablatives of the first and second declension, and genitives singular, nominatives, accusatives, and vocatives plural of the fourth declension, as dominis, gradus, should always be uttered with a long vowel sound, though the accent or stress can never fall on such syllables, except by a very singular poetic license." The same judicious critic, in an ingenious little treatise on Metrical Pauses, adds, that, in accented antepenults, a short is commonly pronounced right, as in animal, but sometimes wrong, that is, with a long vowel sound, as in galea, fateor, taceo, cæsaries, Mænalios; a long is generally pronounced wrong in trisyllables, as pabulum, gramina, machina; but right in some polysyllables, as mortalia, navalia; and wrong in others, as spectacula, levamine, imagine. E short is mate and the last syllable be long, the former receives the acute; as paréntes, amavérunt, rhinocérotis. If the penultimate be short, the antepenultimate has the acute; as dó-

sometimes improperly made long, as in senior, senibus, melior, obsequium, veniet, inveniet; but it is generally pronounced right, as in trepidus, gemitus, epulæ, vulneribus; e long is generally pronounced right in polysyllables, as carchesia; but wrong in trisyllables, as semina, legibus. I short is always right, as timidus, consilium; i long, always wrong; as frigidus, milite, frigore, spiritus, formidine, sidere (noun and verb), convivium, senilia, divinitus, oblivia. O short is generally pronounced right, as in dominus, incolumis; but sometimes wrong, as in odium, moriens, moveo, infodiunt; o long, in some words, is pronounced right, as otium, but in many others wrong, as poculum, honoribus. U short, generally wrong, as incubuit, but not always, for subigit is commonly pronounced right; u long always right, as lumine, cacumine, &c. He concludes by observing that, upon the whole, neither accent nor quantity is to be neglected; and that, so long as we attend to the just rules of accent, and carefully retain the true natural sound of the vowels, never making a short one long nor a long one short, we cannot much err in our pronunciation.

Upon this subject, Dr. Valpy differs a little from Mr. Pickbourn in regard to the influence of the accent on the quantity, and observes, in his excellent Greek Grammar, "that the elevation of the voice does not lengthen the time of that syllable, so that accent and quantity are considered by the best critics as perfectly distinct, and by no means inconsistent with each other. In our language, the accent falls on the antepenultimate equally in the words liberty and library; yet, in the former, the tone only is elevated, in the latter, the syllable is also lengthened. The same difference exists in baron and bacon, in level and léver. In words of two, and of three, short syllables, the difference between the French and English pronunciation is striking. The former make iambics and anapests, the latter trochees and dactyls. The French say fugis, fugimus: the English, fugis, fugimus. In many instances both are equally faulty; thus we shorten the long is in favis, the plural of favus; they lengthen the short is in oris, the genitive of os. Indeed, both may be said to observe strictly neither accent nor quantity." To observe either strictly is, perhaps, not easy; to observe both is still more difficult. The precise nature of accent does not seem to be fully agreed upon; and, therefore, if, in reading, either must be sacrificed to the other, (for which, however, there is no absolute necessity,) it is certainly better, that what is in some degree uncertain, should yield to that which is certain, -that accent should give way to quantity, which is ascertained. By reading according to quantity, is not, however, meant, the breaking down, splitting, or destroying the words, by attending to the feet only; but

minus, Virgilius, Constantinópolis. All other syllables of polysyllables receive the grave accent.—Except from the preceding rules the enclitics, que, ve, ne, which throw the accent upon the last syllable , of the word to which they are joined; as ámat, amátque; thus lacrymánsve, geménsve—Virg. Hyrcanísve, Arabisve—Virg. Culpétne, probétne—Ovid.²

the pronouncing the words; of a verse, so as to give, as much as possible, its due quantity, in real time, to every syllable. In as much as to this mode of reading we can add an attention to accent, emphasis, cadences and pauses, whether metrical or sentential, in so much, doubtless, will the pronunciation be the more correct, graceful, and harmonious. How the antients pronounced the vowels, whether as we do, or, which is more probable, as they are pronounced on the Continent, it is now difficult to determine. One thing, however, is certain, that they did not give a long sound to a short vowel, nor a short sound to a long vowel. In whatever way we sound the vowels, we ought to attend to their quantity. I shall only add, that a syllable long by nature was sounded more fully, being a reduplication of the same vowel, as diicere, maalus, an apple-tree, poopulus, a poplar-tree. Whereas the syllable long by position, had no other length than its being sustained by the two following consonants, as dixi. It is probable also that a syllable short by nature preserved more of its natural quantity than a syllable short by position only. -- Such words as volucris have the accent, in prose, on the antepenultimate, but, in verse, we should place it on the antepenultimate when the penultimate is considered as short, and upon the penultimate when it is regarded as long; thus,

Et primo similis vólŭcri, mox vera volū'cris—Ovid.

This is, unquestionably, true when the penultimate is long, as *siderisque*. But it admits some doubt, when the penultimate ends with a short vowel, as in *siderăque*. Should we not, therefore read

Pronague cum spectent animalia cætera terram—Ovid.
With respect to the accentuation of words introduced from

With respect to the accentuation of words introduced from other languages, there seems to be scarcely any general rule, or

uniform practice.

² It does not happen, however, that que and ne, at the end of words, are always to be considered as enclitics; and when they are not, the words are accented according to the general rules; as útique, dénique, úndique, &c.; likewise such words, used interrogatively, as hiccine, siccine, &c. Priscian says that in calefacio, calefacis, and calefacit, the accent is on the same syllable on which it falls in the simple verb, namely the second a, although in the two last it be the penultimate, and also short. And in the same manner, calef io, calef is, calef it, as in the simple verb. According to Donatus, siquando had the accent sometimes on the antepenultimate; according to Servius, exinde likewise; and, to Gel-

The accentual marks are seldom used but for distinction's sake. Thus the adverbs aliquò, continuò, palàm, doctè, unà, and the like, are marked with a grave accent. Ablatives of the first declension; genitives of the fourth; nostrúm and vestrúm from nos and vos; ergó used for causá, are written with a circumflex on the last syllable; and sometimes those words which have suffered syncope or synæresis are circumflected; as poetâ, fructús, amásse, flésti, dîs. The circumflex is put over the nominative nostrás, instead of which, nostratis was formerly used; likewise over genitives in ii, when one i is cut off by apocope; as Pompili regnum, Tarquinî fasces—Hor. instead of Pompilii, Tarquinii.

The three preceding rules are, I believe, those usually given for the position of the Latin accents. Whether the word accent, as employed in them, was originally intended to be received in the sense of tone, or of emphasis or ictus, it may, perhaps, be considered difficult to determine; but, notwithstanding the previous definitions of the accents, as consisting in elevation and depression of voice, I have little doubt, that these rules refer, solely or chiefly, to the situation of the ictus or syllabic emphasis. One thing clearly appears, from an inspection of the 2nd and 3d rule, the only rules, indeed, by which the pronunciation seems to be particularly affected, that our usual ictus or syllabic force, if not identical with the accent there intended, at least uniformly coincides with it on the same syllable; as in Roma, homo, insons, emphatic on the first syllable; Romanus, imperator, parentes, amaverunt, emphatic on the penultimate; dominus, Virgilius, on the antepenultimate. It is almost needless to add, what is so well known, that the enclitics naturally incline our syllabic emphasis to the syllable immediately preceding them; as amat, amatque. With respect to the nature of Accent, and indeed, generally, in all discussions regarding the nature and mutual relations of the accidents or properties essential to a note of speech, much diver-

lius, exadversum and affatim. To these are added enimvero, duntaxat, and some others which may be seen in Priscian, Lipsius, or Vossius. Vossius observes, that although the accent may be on the antepenultimate in perinde and deinde, we are not to conclude that it may be so in deinceps, and the like, where the last is long; for that no word can be accented on the antepenultimate, when the two last syllables are long. The penultimate of vocatives in ius is accented, although it be short; as Ovidi, Virgili, Merciari; the reason of which is, that these words formerly had e after the i, which although they have dropped, they retain the accent on the same syllable as before. To these might be added a few others, as muliéris, which, according to Priscian, has the accent on the penultimate though short.

sity of opinion is known to prevail. The subject, it must be confessed, is intricate, and involved in considerable difficulty. If, therefore, in the following humble attempt to elucidate some disputed points, and correct some prevailing misconceptions, it should be found, which he fears is not unlikely, that the writer himself has inadvertently lapsed into obscurity or error, he will have some claim on the reader's indulgence.

Most of the errors, and contradictions, that so frequently occur in discussions relative both to ancient and modern prosody, I have reason to believe, may be traced chiefly to the following

sources :-

1st. An imperfect knowledge, and a consequent confusion, of the three distinct properties essential to a note of speech, namely: -1. Quantity, time, or dimension, comprehending the relative proportions denominated long and short, open and close. 2. Quality, force, or emphasis, comprehending the properties denoted by the terms loud and soft, forte and piano, strong and feeble, emphatic and remiss, or unemphatic, thetic, and in arsis; the essence, we know, of rhythm, in all modern tongues. And, indeed, as the organs of speech cannot be supposed to vary, and, consequently, the process of verbal utterance, in all ages, must have been uniformly the same in kind or manner, we entertain not the smallest doubt, that the same prominent, unavoidable, and alternately or periodically obtrusive properties, constituted also the essence of rhythm in all the antient languages. 3. Tone, tune, or accent, comprehending the pitch, and the rising or the fulling inflections, of words and syllables, termed the high and the low notes, the acute and the grave accents; an accident in which chiefly consists the melody of speech. A note of speech, then, must be of some time; and, whether it be long or short, it must be either emphatic or remiss; and, whether long or short, emphatic or remiss, it must have some musical pitch, and be either an acute accent or a grave accent, that is, a rising inflexion or a falling inflexion, or a combination of the two; variations, however, which, in speech, do not commonly succeed each other, as is generally the case in music, per saltum, or at intervals, but in constant and almost imperceptible slides or undulations. Every vocal and articulate sound, therefore, possesses these three accidents. According, however, to the different genius of different languages, any one of the three may so far predominate, in the usual mode of speech, over the others, as to seem, from its prominence, the principal, if not the only, accident; and, in a faulty or unnatural pronunciation of a language, any one of the accidents may occasionally acquire undue preponderance. But we are not hence to infer that any one of them is utterly extinguished. Quantity, it is probable, may have obtained, at some period, most attention in the pronunciation of the antient languages, as quality now has in that of the modern tongues. Hence it may be, that the poetry of the former is regulated chiefly by a certain regard to

long syllables and short; and that of the latter by a similar regard to emphatic syllables and unemphatic.

2d. The want of a distinct and specific notation for each of

the three accidents.

3d. The circumstance, that length of quantity, emphasis, and the rising inflexion, are found to coincide most frequently on the same note; a coincidence for which it would not be difficult to assign a satisfactory reason.

4th. The utter impossibility of recovering an accurate knowledge of the accentual, or even of the emphatical, pronunciation of a dead language; or, indeed, of fixing, by rule, the tones or

accentuation of any language.

5th. The notion that quantity, emphasis, and tone, necessarily interfere with and influence each other; but yet that it is possible to read well by quantity, without any observance of emphasis or of tone; or to read well according to emphasis, without any regard to tone or to quantity; in other words, that it is possible to read the ancient languages well, neglecting, or sink-

ing altogether, one or two of the accidents.

6th. The want of a special, appropriate, and univocal prosodical nomenclature. Hence, 1. The misapplication, at least among the moderns, of the term accent, to designate syllabic emphasis; a circumstance which has contributed to the almost universal confusion of the two distinct qualities properly denominated by these two different terms. 2. The common use of the term high, to designate the property of loud, and vice versá.

3. The general acceptation of the word low, as a correlative term both to loud and high. 4. The prevailing error in the grammars of modern tongues, and in the writings of modern authors, of terming an emphatical syllable, a long quantity, and an unemphatical syllable a short quantity. 5. The two fold application to such words as voice, vox; syllable, syllaba; of such verbs as lower, depono, demitto, deprimo; raise, elevo, acuo, attollo; in reference either to the vocal slides or inflexions, or to the distinctions merely of softness or loudness-sometimes in reference to quantity; see also Lily's 2d and 3d special rule. 6. The various interpretations and acceptations of the ancient terms arsis and thesis, some authors referring them respectively to acuteness and to gravity of note; some, in like manner, to loudness and softness; and others, in both respects, just reversing the references; some uniformly assigning the first part of a foot, without considering whether it be the beginning or the middle of a bar, to the arsis, and the last to the thesis; and others, with similar incaution, uniformly placing the thesis first, and the arsis last; opposites, if considered as general rules, without doubt, equally incorrect. 7. The undefined nature of the terms ictus and percussio, some referring both to the accident of tone or accent, others to that of quality or emphasis; some considering them as denoting identical, and others dissimilar effects; and

some contending that the former denotes only a part of what is denominated by the latter, but without furnishing a clear explanation of the precise nature either of the part or the whole. Reasoning from the principles and practice of our own tongue, we should not deem it unlikely, that the ictus may have been generally intended to designate the usual emphatic or thetic influence, falling alternately or periodically on one or more of the syllables of every hypermonosyllable; and that the percussio may have distinguished the preeminently emphatic or thetic syllable of the longer polysyllables, or perhaps of compound or polysyllabic feet. 8. The various uses of the word cæsura, which is sometimes used to denote the cutting or separation of a word, the syllable separated, and the pause of separation; and is applied, too, to whole verses and to single feet. Its synonym tome, also, is used for the separation of a verse, and seems to be sometimes applied to the first part of the verse separated, or to any equivalent combination of syllables. 9. The different acceptations of the word cadence, which is used to denote the fall of the voice, with regard either to tone or to force, and the rhythm, flow, or general harmony of an expression. 10. The unqualified application of the names belonging to the ancient feet, regulated by quantity, to the modern feet, regulated by quality; a circumstance which has led some to suppose that both ancient and modern poetry are directed precisely by the same principles. 11. The various imports ascribed to such terms as ἐυμέλεια. ἐυρυθμία, melody, harmony, modulation, &c. 12. The various senses in which the term tone is employed. It denotes sometimes the mere sound or voice itself, a note of speech or song, the musical gradations of a series of sounds, and sometimes the peculiar intonation of a province or country. 13. The lax sense of the ancient term rhythmus. (1.) It was sometimes spoken of as synonymous with foot; thus Dionysius, of Halicarnassus, says, το δ' αυτό καλῶ πόδα καί δυθμον (De Struct. Orat. sect. 17.) And Aristides, δυθμός τοίνυν ές ι σύ-5 κμα έκ κοόνων κατά τινα τάξιν συγκειμένων. (De Musica, l.i.p. 31.) Rhythm is a system of times put together in a certain order. (2.) Again: not the same order, but the same quantity, of times, was denoted; for example, the dactyl and the anapæst are in the same rhythm, because they each consist of the same times. So, Quintilian, Rhythmi, id est, numeri, spatio temporum constant. (De Inst. Orat. l. ix. c. 1, p. 479.) The truth probably is, that, as insulated feet or separate metres, a trochee and an iambus, and a dactyl and an anapæst, must be considered respectively as the reverse of each other; but that in succession, the trochaic and the iambic rhythm, and the dactylic and the anapæstic, are respectively considered the same. (3.) The word rhythmus sometimes denotes the *measure*, or a number of movements, agreeably united, of which the ear is to be the judge. So, Cicero, Quicquid est enim quod sub aurium mensuram aliquam cadet, etiamși ahest a versu, numerus vocatur, qui Grace zoduos dicitur.

(De Oral.) Here the word seems to refer to the concinutars, or general harmony of period, which results, not so much from any minute attention to a certain succession of feet or syllables, as from the choice, order, proportions, and arrangement of its constituent words, clauses, and members.—Nothing is more perplexing, or a greater source of error and of captious dispute, than the vague, indefinite, or equivocal use of technical terms. Were writers more careful in defining, and in using such words, there would be fewer disputed points, and these would much sooner, if not more satisfactorily, arrive at their natural conclusion. We feel no hesitation to declare our belief, that the complete practice of ancient prosody is irrecoverably lost; nor, we do assert, will its mere theory ever be intelligibly discussed by modern critics, till the real meaning and import of its technical terms shall have been precisely ascertained.

I shall now proceed, without restricting myself to any particular order, to exhibit, with occasional remarks and illustrations, some of the misconceptions on the subject both of ancient and

modern Prosody.

That learned critic, Isaac Vossius, affirms (in his work De Pocmatum cantu et viribus Rhythmi), that we have no rhythm at all in our poetry; that we mind nothing but to have a certain number of syllables in a verse, of whatever nature, and in whatever order; that there is nothing but confusion of quantities in the modern odes; that the moderns have no regard to the natural quantity of syllables; and have introduced an unnatural and barbarous variety of long and of short notes, without any regard to the subject and sense of the verse, or the natural pronunciation. Nothing can be more untrue than the substance of these remarks. That the accident of quantity is not much regarded in English poetry, nor in that of other living languages, is a fact which no one conversant with the subject will be inclined to question. For a modern verse is regulated neither by the mere measure, nor by any particular order, of times. But doubtless the same care that the ancients devoted to the regular arrangement of their longs and shorts, the moderns devote to that of their emphatics and unemphatics; in the due and natural observance of which consists the essence or rhythm of their poetical compositions. Rhythm, then, the English language does possess, similar in its nature, we will venture to assert, to that of the ancients, the essence of both consisting, not in the mere drawl of quantity, nor in the fluctuating and fugitive tones of syllables, but in the prominent, natural, and regularly varied distinction of syllabic emphasis and remission. Trissino, a famous Italian poet, justly observes "that, as the ancient feet were determined by the quantity of the syllables, so in his language they are determined by the accent," (i. e. syllabic emphasis.) "This (adds Pemberton, in Observ. on Poet.) is equally true in our tongue; and for this reason, that, whereas the ancient accent is represented to be only a variation in the tone,

and had no relation to the quantity of the syllable, ours is constantly attended with an emphasis which implies greater length in the syllable." Here there appear to be at least two blunders, the confusion of accent and emphasis, and the assertion that syllabic emphasis implies greater length of syllable, which is not always the fact. But in some points regarding this subject, Dr. Arthur Browne seems to have erred even more than his fallible predecessors. He observes (7th vol. of Irish Transact.) that "the modern Greeks make accents the cause of quantity; they make the syllable long on which the acute falls; and they allow the acute accent to change the real quantity. They always read poetry, as well as prose, by accent." That either the acute accent, or the syllabic emphasis, (two things, however, widely different,) may fall most frequently on a long syllable, is not at all unlikely; but that, in any language, either accent or emphasis can be "the cause of quantity," is a most unnatural supposition, one which will obtain credit from no person that has any clear conception of the distinct natural properties belonging to a note of speech. No such relation subsists between them. The truth however is, that Mr. Marsh, the learned translator of Michaelis, asserts the contrary; he states that he heard a Greek priest distinctly mark, in his pronunciation, both accent and quantity. But he appears to say nothing respecting the syllabic emphasis, which is much to be regretted; for, since so prominent an affection could not be overlooked, a suspicion may remain, that, while he imagined he was remarking the accent, his attention was arrested merely by the more commanding quality of syllabic emphasis. It is indeed too true, that, from the circumstance of our syllabic emphasis being commonly termed accent, even our most intelligent writers on the subject seem to forget, or not to know, that there really does exist such a quality as accent or tone, altogether different from that of emphasis falsely termed accent. Still, however, his assertion would prove the correct observance of syllabic emphasis and quantity. Indeed I am inclined to think that Dr. Browne himself, when he wrote, did not understand the difference between accent and emphasis. When he employs "accent" or the "acute accent," he appears to mean syllabic emphasis. "They always (he says) read poetry, as well as prose, by accent." And were they ever read correctly, otherwise? He probably then meant to say, that, in their poetry, syllabic emphasis has the same predominance that it possesses in our own, and in that of other modern tongues. "In the English language (adds Dr. Browne) accent and quantity always agree." Nothing can be more untrue, whether, by the term agree, he refers to their identity, or to their coincidence on the same note or syllable; or whether by accent he means tone or merely syllabic emphasis. An acute syllable, an emphatic syllable, and a long syllable, are widely different one from another; nor do the qualities always coincide on the same syllable. The first syllables of tyrant, private, and of tyranny, privy, are both emphatic; and

yet the first syllable of each of the former two is long or open, while that of the latter two is short or close. Their tones too are probably dissimilar. There is little doubt that both Primatt and Browne, in their conceptions, that the rhythm of verse consists in a due regard to accent, have mistaken one property of speech for another, or, at least, have improperly employed one term for another. With respect, however, to the nature of modern verse, and the accidents of a note of speech, the French grammarians seem to have carried their absurdities to the greatest extent. French language is said to have no accent, meaning, I suppose, syllabic emphasis. Their philologists prescribe as a universal rule, that, "pour bien parler François, il ne faut point avoir d'accent;" and they contradistinguish our language from theirs by calling the English "une langue cadencée." Moreover, it would seem that their poetry is independent on accent, emphasis, or quantity; for as to a verse, "il ne consiste qu'en certain nombre de syllabes." Such remarks, and such definitions, are altogether incorrect. The French certainly ought to be the best judges of their own language; but, if I can trust to my ear, I think that they do, and, if to my judgment, that they must, have some degrees of syllabic emphasis and remission. That in their language there is more of levity (if I may so use the word), or of relative weakness, than in others; and that in their polysyllables they have not, as in English, one emphatic syllable regularly rendered pre-eminent, are circumstances which I do not mean to question. But, were any Frenchman to attempt to point out intelligibly the difference between the English word impossible, and the French impossible, the result, I imagine, would be, that almost the same eminence which the English assign to their syllable poss, the Frenchman will give to the second i of the French word. That the French language then possesses syllabic emphasis, and that the regularity and harmony of their verses consist in the alternation of emphasis and remission, are facts that appear to me abundantly evident. The following lines, for example, from Racine, are in the even cadence, being iambic hexameters, with the even syllables generally thetic or emphatic;

Celui qui met un frein à la fureur des flots,
Sait aussi des mechans arrêter les complots.

In the following lines the cadence is evidently anapæstic:
Il faut nous s'entre-aider, c'est la loi de nature.
Ce monarque, protecteur d'un monarque, comme lui.

On precisely the same principle are the verses of other modern languages constructed: thus, in the Spanish, the following is an iambic pentameter, hypercatalectic, the emphasis being on the even syllables:

Pastores que dormis en la majada. Thus also the Italian; as in the following couplet, which likewise has in each line a hyperrhythmical syllable:

Che viver più felice e più beato, Che ritrovarsi in servitù d'amore!

And here it is worthy of observation, that on the first syllable of ritrovarsi and of servitù is placed, as happens in English words, the inferior emphasis, the primary being on the third syllable. It is needless to exemplify the principle by reference to the English language. It is surprising then that Mr. Mitford, the learned and elegant historian, should observe (Harmony of Language) that "he often gave his attention, at the Paris theatre, to the declamation of the best actors, with the particular purpose of gathering the nature of French verse; but that he ever remained ignorant what it is that, under French rules, can make a French verse, with the requisite number of syllables, a more or less harmonious verse." The general inferiority of their emphasis is probably one reason why, to mark clearly the boundary of the line, their verses are generally concluded with very full rhymes. If in the preceding French rule real accent or tone were meant, then we must observe that the French have accent and variety of accent, that every vocal or articulate sound proceeding from a Frenchman's mouth has some musical pitch, and is a note either of speech or song. The French language therefore is not, as writers have stated it to be, an exception to the principle that to every language belong accent, quality, and quantity.

The late Bishop Horsley, in his elaborate and valuable treatise "On the Prosodies of the Greek and Latin Languages," seems to have confounded real accent or tone with syllabic emphasis, or our modern accent. "It appears (he says) that the acute, which is a sharp stroke of the voice upon some one syllable of the word, is in truth the only positive tone. The grave consists merely in a negation of that acuteness." "The natural tendency of the acute (he adds), contrary to the prejudice of the English ear, is to shorten the syllable upon which it falls," while, on the other hand, Primatt asserts that it makes a short syllable become a long one. And, although he observes, with approbation, that "the Halicarnassian says that the circumflex was a mixture of the acute and the grave," yet he doubts whether "circumflexion be a different thing from acuteness," and considers the circumflex accent "as a compound mark of accent and quantity." What he means by "a sharp stroke," he does not seem to have clearly explained. It is pretty evident, however, that he means nothing essentially different from what is termed ictus, or

syllabic emphasis.

Now, it is almost needless to observe, that an acute accent is in reality a rising inflexion, and has no necessary connexion with any stroke of the voice, since it may affect either an emphatic or an unemphatic syllable. Besides, the definition of circumflexion, which he appears to approve, is not very consistent with his explanation of the two simple accents, which, as far as tone is concerned, would form a combination of something and nothing, of

a positive quality and its mere negation. While professing to regulate accent or tone, which we suspect never was, and never could be, completely subjected to rules, the learned author, doubtless, was unconsciously laying down rules merely for syllabic emphasis.

There are few subjects connected with language, on which writers have been more divided in opinion, than on the nature of ancient rhythm, and the manner in which antient poetry ought to be pronounced. In contrasting the Latin position of his sharp stroke, as in προσεφη, with the Greek, as in προσέφη, in the follow-

ing line.

Τον δ' απαμειδόμενος προσέφη πόδας ώκὺς 'Αγίλλευς, Dr. Horsley allows that the two first syllables will be short either way; but he thinks that, in following the former mode, it will be difficult, if not impracticable, not to shorten the final long syllable on; but that, by following the latter, the reader will be compelled to give an with its true length of sound. "True. (observes a Monthly Reviewer, vol. xxv. 256,) but he will also feel himself compelled to lengthen the sound of $\pi \rho o s$; and, indeed, we believe it impossible to pronounce two consecutive short syllables with the same brevity." Either way, I see little danger to quantity. By the former mode, the word, in regard to emphasis and quantity, will pretty much resemble the English word prostitute or substitule, the noun attributes, enterprise, runaway; by the latter, such English words, as the verb attributes. For my own part, in reading this line, I should feel no hesitation to lav the ictus or emphasis on the last syllable of the word, as I would on our English word entertain I consider a dactyl or a spondee as a metrical cadence or complete rhythmical pulsation, including thesis and arsis, equivalent to a musical bar, and constituting an aliquot part of the verse, the first syllable of each being thetic or emphatic, and the remainder of the foot being in arsis or remiss. Feet may be regarded, so far perhaps as melepy is concerned, as a poet's words; and, therefore, in reciting a hexameter verse, I would uniformly lay the emphasis on the first syllable of a dactyl and spon-The last syllable however of the dactyl, though in arsis, will, of necessity, not be equally weak with the middle syllable. And in such a mode of recitation, unless too great a pause be made between the feet, there will be no danger whatever, either by metrical connexions or separations, of destroying the intelligibility of the words. In reciting the following English line,

Ah! | come not, | write not, | think not | once of | me. the two monosyllables have the precise effect of a dissyllable; and yet no hearer, possessing a competent knowledge of the language, would misunderstand either the words or their meaning. Our longer words too are perfectly intelligible, even although, by receiving two distinct emphases, they may seem, in a deliberate recitation, to be broken into two distinct words. It is chiefly by a sort of durate afterance, by making an unnecessary long pause after each foot, and by erroneously laying our syllabic emphasis on its last syllable, that in reading ancient hexameter, as it is termed, by quantity, we seem to scan, rather than to read, destroying the integrity of the words, and, as far at least as emphasis is concerned, to convert dactyls into anapæsts, and spondees into iambuses.

Let the dactyl be pronounced, in regard to time and force, somewhat like our English word curious or warily, and the spondee like timepiece or warlike; and, I apprehend, neither will quantity be much falsified, nor will emphasis be essentially injured. In this way, two out of the three accidents of speech will be tolerably preserved. But then it may be asked, what becomes of real accent or tone? The complete practice, I answer, if not, also, even the theory, of the Greek and Roman accentuation, is irretrievably lost. But, if a line be read in the way which we have ventured to recommend, not with the monotonous drawl of a child learning to read, but with our natural and unaffected pronunciation, and a due regard to sense and pause, it will be found to possess, at least, all the melody or accentual music of English speech, (which cannot be different in kind from that of Greece or Rome,) arising from variety of pitch and inflexion, every syllable, whether long or short, emphatic or unemphatic, having been uttered in some accent, or combination of accent, commensurate with the time of the syllable, the acute or rising inflexion coinciding most frequently with the long and emphatic quantity. By a regular adjustment of the syllabic emphasis, the ἐυρυθμία will be regarded; in the natural accompaniment of tones, the ἐυμέλεια will not be altogether lost; and, by a due observance of the relative time of each note or syllable, the perfection of both will be most essentially promoted.

But Dr. Horsley's object was certainly a rational one, viz. not to supersede quantity, nor to annihilate accent or emphasis, but to preserve both; to prescribe rules for accent (syllabic emphasis), so as to render it "not destructive of quantity, but subservient to it." And yet, doubtless, even ten general rules could not be necessary to ascertain the proper position of the syllabic emphasis in hexameter verse, or in any other species of verse, antient or modern; and ten times the number would be insufficient to fix the accentuation of any language. Although, however, his rules in regard to the changes which he "conceives the tones of connected words to have undergone," may not be deemed unobjectionable, no one will deny that many of this eminently learned prelate's remarks are well entitled to the notice of every classical scholar. While grammarians, whether antient or modern. are laying down rules for fixing the accentuation, it is probable, that they mean by accent, nothing but syllabic emphasis. Accentuation, in any language, never was, nor could be, fixed; for the accents must always have been liable to variation, according to the position of the words, whether in question or in answer, in a

suspended, or in a final sense; since tone consists in the natural modulation of the voice, which accompanies the verbal expression

of our sentiments and emotions.

Dr. Horsley's treatise was attacked with some ability, and not a little flippancy, in the postscript to a work entitled Metron ariston, ascribed to Dr. Warner, and most extravagantly and unwarrantably panegyrized by the Monthly Reviewers and other critics. The object of this publication is to support the principles of Adolphus Mekerchus, who, in his commentary De veteri et recta pronuntiatione linguæ Græcæ, was a strenuous advocate for reading every syllable, according merely to its quantity. strange project truly! There can, in truth, be no rational objection to reading by quantity; but we deny the possibility of reading by quantity alone. As emphasis cannot be neglected, why should it not be put under some sort of regulation? But we further remark, that, while Dr. Warner conceives that he is reading by quantity alone, it is quite evident that he is really reading chiefly with attention to a particular position of the syllabic emphasis, since he assimilates his favourite mode of pronouncing Greek and Latin verses, with "the modulation observed in the English, with which his examples are associated in similar measure;" ex. gr.

Ades, Pater supreme,
Thy head with glo ry beamy!
Fortu na no mutat genus,
With glit ter and with names what fuss!
Lenes que sub noctem susurri,
When lads to meet their lass es hurry.

Now, what is this but reading chiefly according to syllabic emphasis, the predominating accident in the composition of our own poetry? But we are far from objecting to this mode; our objection lies chiefly against the inapposite terms in which the doctrine is couched, one accident of speech being evidently mistaken for another, and against the pompous manner in which it is introduced as communicating "a new pleasure." Dr. Warner, however, does not stand alone in this misconception. Almost every modern advocate for ancient quantity, of whom we have any knowledge, seems to regard a long quantity as precisely identical with an emphatical syllable; and to imagine that, while he is recommending, in reality, nothing else but a particular adjustment of the emphasis, he is strenuously supporting the cause of much-injured quantity. It is certainly true, however, that, in all languages, strength and extension of sound, and perhaps, we may add, acuteness too, more naturally, and, therefore, more frequently, coincide on the same note or syllable: hence, probably, the almost universal confusion of the really distinct properties of emphasis (quality), quantity, and tone. It would seem, that the particular state of organic tension, necessary for the production of the emphatic impulse, is peculiarly adapted, not only for protraction of sound, but perhaps also for elevation of note. Even Mekerchus himself, in allusion to what he terms reading by quantity, observes, Si hoc modo pronuntiaris, servatā syllabarum quantitate, etiam ut versus non digeras in pedes, quis tamen apou et desuvon audiat, et suavissimā horum versuum gravitate non capiatur? Now, although a proper attention to quantity may be the more likely mode of ensuring the proper rhythm, as indicated by arsis and thesis, and vice versā; we do maintain, that reading by mere quantity, were it practicable, would not of itself produce those varieties indicated by arsis and thesis, in as much as the essence of rhythm does not, and cannot, consist in an observance of mere quantity.

We do not, however, mean to deny that time is necessary to rhythm, but to assert that the essence of rhythm does not consist in time. That arsis and thesis may be observed in the proposed mode of reading, is likely enough; but then it will be found, that, in the recitation of Mekerchus, Dr. Warner, and "the learned ecclesiastic," with whose pronunciation the latter was so fascinated, their long syllables are fully as much charac-

terized by emphasis, as by extension of sound.

Emphasis, not quantity, we conceive to be the true pulse of speech. Time itself, in a mere continuation of longs and shorts, cannot, we apprehend, be the time-measurer or time-beater. Syllables of equal length can, of themselves, impress no character of cadence. Without the variety produced by some other accident than quantity, whence could arise the rhythm of a drauling succession of monochronous syllables, whether termed spondees or pyrrhics? The most exact pronunciation, indeed, of longs, and shorts, in any possible order, would, otherwise, be nothing but mere nerveless and exanimate syllabification.

Cicero observes, " Numerus in continuatione nullus est; distinctio, et æqualium et sæpe variorum intervallorum percussio, numerum conficit." It is by the alternation of emphasis and remission, that intervals and proportions of time are duly discriminated and audibly indicated. The prominent variation of syllabic force and feebleness must have been generally known before tones could be analysed, or quantities were clearly ascertained, and must have been instinctively and irresistibly felt, as the vital principle both of speech and song. It is not conceivable that an accident of speech, which constitutes almost the sole regulating principle of modern versification, could have been overlooked, or should not have been deemed a consideration of the highest importance, in the composition and recitation of ancient poetry. Its existence needs not to be proved by authorities, since it is founded in the very nature of things, in the action and powers of the organs of speech. Without an intervening pause, it is physically impossible to pronounce two consecutive syllables, whether long or short, with the same strong syllabic emphasis; there must be a re-action of the primary organ of syllabic impulse, either during

a pause, or on a remiss note or two, for speech is effected, not by continuous, but reiterated action: and, in the utterance of even two consecutive weak syllables, it will be found, that there is not the same degree of weakness; hence the alternate or periodical nature of emphasis and remission, which we conceive to be the essence and governing principle of rhythm, and believe to have been visibly indicated by the action of thesis and arsis. It is upon this principle, that every English word of two syllables, has necessarily an emphatic impulse upon one of them. The longer words may have two or three impulses, their syllabic position being generally determined by the seat of the primary or pre-eminent emphasis. In this manner are English and other modern languages enunciated. Thus also are Greek and Latin now pro-And in a similar manner must they always have been pronounced, unless, indeed, the Greeks and Romans had their organs of speech differently constructed, or differently gifted, from those of modern times. We entertain not even the smallest doubt, for example, that the pronunciation, so far at least as concerns emphasis, of the ditrochec, comprobavit, a cadence or close, with which, we are told, by Cicero and Quintilian, that the Asiatics were wonderfully delighted, was precisely similar to that of our word approbation, a cadence, perhaps, equally agreeable to modern ears: that, in point of emphasis, (the present part of the question does not regard quantity,) it consisted, like the latter, of a weak and a strong modern trochee; or, to speak more correctly, that, as, in the English word, the inferior emphasis was laid on the first syllable com, and the stronger on a, the penultimate. In regard both to emphasis and quantity, it is certain, that each word furnishes a fine flowing cadence. True then it doubtless is, in one respect at least, although often questioned. that rhythmus est metro potentior. There is nothing in the nature of things, to determine whether the two syllables of a dissyllable shall be both long, both short, or one of each kind. Far otherwise with respect to emphasis. And hence it probably is, that in the composition of verse, to the almost utter neglect of passive quantity, rhythm, or the unavoidable pulsation of alternate emphasis and remission, still survives, and may be said to reign supreme lord of the ascendant. We again repeat it, Is it rational to suppose that such a connate principle in human utterance could have been overlooked by the antients? Presuming that it could not be overlooked, we would ask, In what terms have they characterized its effects on speech, if these are not to be regarded as the essence of the antient rhythm?

We are well aware of the discrepancies observable among the ancient writers, and among the modern too, on the nature of the ancient rhythm. We presume, however, to think, that the authority of Aristides, who was not only a grammarian, but a musician, is entitled to the highest credit. He writes, (Meibomius, vol. 2, p. 49,) Too her before a cose has Sessi the estate of the property of the work access has Sessi the estate of the property of the

de metoon en ouddasais hai th tetoin anomoiothti, that rhythm has its essence in arsis and thesis, but metre in syllables and their difference; and he afterwards plainly refers to its name and office, when he speaks of the αγωγή δυθμικής έμφασεως, as Steele justly translates it, drift of rhythmical emphasis. He observes also, that άρσις μέν εςι φόρα σώματος έπὶ τῷ άνω. Θέσις δέ ἐπὶ τῷ κάτω ταυτέ μέρους, (De Musica, p. 31,) that arsis is the raising up of some part of the body, and thesis is the moving down the same. And adds, that "the dactylic and trochaic feet begin with thesis, and end with arsis; but the anapæstic and iambic begin with arsis and end with thesis." (Id. pp. 36, 37.) Hence it would appear that the Greek and the Latin rhythmus was analogous to a bar of music; the former comprising syllables, the latter consisting of notes; the measure and quality of both being indicated by time-beating, or the pulsation of thesis and arsis. If the foot began with an emphatic syllable, it was measured per thesin, by the hand first down, or the supplosio pedis; if, with an unemphatic syllable, it was measured per arsin, that is, by the hand or foot first up; so that, according as the first part of the foot was emphatic or unemphatic, the measuring of it began either with thesis or arsis. A line, beginning with arsis would be considered, we presume, as if commencing in the middle of a bar. The preceding account of the matter, we think much more accordant with the truth, than that which is furnished by Hermann, (de Metris, p. 18,) who seems to refer arsis either to loudness or to acuteness of voice (we do not pretend to determine which); and thesis, in like manner, to either softness or gravity. These are his words, "Ea vis et veluti nisus quidam, quo princeps cujusque ordinis sonus ab insequentibus distinguitur, ictus appellatur; Græci apour vocant, ab elevatione vocis," (whether does he mean loudness or acuteness?) "insequentesque sonos a demittenda voce," (softness or gravity? "in Sever esse dicunt." Had he put thesis and arsis, with their respective explanations, in the place of each other, and at the same time substituted pes or manus for vox, I am inclined to think the words of his definitions, and their application, would have come much nearer to the truth. For we conceive ictus and thesis to be synonymous, the foot or hand being here put down, and lifted up at arsis.

That rhythm and metre are different things, and that the ancient rhythm was identical in kind with the modern, we may, I think, fairly presume from the words both of Quintilian and Longinus. The former concludes the well-known passage, in which he is elaborately discriminating metre and rhythm, with these words, "Metrum in verbis modo, rhythmus etiam in corporis motu est," that metre exists in words only, but that rhythm may be exhibited equally in the motion of the body (as in dance). To the same effect are the words of Longinus; Διαφέρει δὲ Μέτρον Ῥυθμοῦν υλη γὰρ τοῖς μέτροις ἡ συλλαξη, καὶ χωρὶς συλλαξης οὐκ ἀν γένοιτο Μέτρον. 'Ο δὲ Ῥυθμὸς γίνεται καὶ ἐν συλλαξαῖς, γίνεται δὲ καὶ χωρὶς

συλλαβής καὶ γὰρ ἐν κρότω. Longin. Fragm. Metre differs from rhythm; for syllables are the material of metre, and without syllable there can be no metre: but rhythm may exist either in syllables, or without them, for strokes (as in beating a drum) are

sufficient to produce rhythmus.

I am not ignorant either of the artificial polysyllabic feet mentioned as existing in ancient prosody, or of the alleged intricacy of the ancient rhythmus. It is, however, stated as the opinion of Austin, that a foot ought not to exceed four syllables. Dionysius (de Struct. Orat. sect. xvii. ad fin.) says, that it should not be less than two, nor more than three. Cicero (Orat. 218,) says, "Pæon, quòd plures habeat syllabas quàm tres, numerus a quibusdam, non pes habetur." And Quintilian seems to be of the same opinion: "Quicquid enim supra tres syllabas, id ex pluribus est pedibus." (Inst. 1.9.) But, be this as it may, the natural foot or step must have consisted of, and been measured by, one arsis and one thesis. There could not have been, we apprehend, more And when, acthan two, or, at most, three syllables in arsis. cording to the particular quantities which it measured, the hand or the foot had performed the appropriate motions, the natural foot must have been complete; with a renewal of these motions, another foot or rhythmus must have commenced. With respect to rhythm, I must confess, that I know of but two kinds, existing in nature, usually, I believe, termed common time, and triple time; and these, I apprehend, must always have been the same,

whether in speech or in song.

Much, however, as we would contend for the importance and influence of emphasis in the recitation of ancient verse, we cannot coincide in the *literal* interpretation of those words in the Scholiast, which have been so often commented on, namely, 'O δύθμος, ως βούλεται, έλκεὶ τους χρόνους. Πολλάκις γεν καὶ τον Βράχυν χρόνον ποιεί μακρόν. The meaning has been supposed to be this, that, when a short syllable occurred, where a long one was required, the rhythmus would require a following inane or rest; so that, although the syllable would not in reality be lengthened, the proper time of the line would thus be completed. To the preceding strange dogma, Marius Victorinus has added, that "rhythm will often make a long time short." We know that, in reading English verse, we are sometimes compelled, if we yield to the drift of the rhythm, to give an emphatic utterance to a syllable not naturally emphatic, and to pass remissly over syllables naturally entitled to syllabic force. All, then, we suspect, intended to be intimated in the preceding words is, that the position of the syllabic emphasis commonly observed in prose, was not always regarded in poetry, or that the rhythm gives an emphatic utterance to a short, a doubtful, or an unemphatic syllable, or to a natural short quantity in position, if in the verse it should happen to occupy an emphatic situation. Emphasis, though often mistaken for length of quantity, with which it most frequently

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coincides, is not quantity; nor can it, strictly speaking, impart that which it neither is, nor essentially possesses. But we do not mean absolutely to deny, that, in compositions in which there existed variety of feet, occasional modifications of quantity, without, however, altering its specific character, and occasional pauses, might have been necessary to make the metre keep a due pace with the rhythm.

An instance of the application of the preceding principle, it is

probable, we have in Virgil's

———pecudes, pictæque volucres. Georg. iii, 243. Æn. iv, 525.

in which the middle syllable of volucres, commonly unemphatic, and naturally short, though it may be deemed long by position, becomes emphatic, by being put into the place of thesis. On this line, Quintilian observes, "Evenit ut metri quoque conditio mutet accentum, nam volúcres, media acuta legam; quia, etsi brevis natura, tamen positione longa est, ne faciat Iambum, quem non recipit versus heroicus." Whether, by accentus, Quintilian really refers to accent, properly so termed, or tone, or to our accent or syllabic emphasis, I shall not, notwithstanding the "media acuta," in the context, attempt to determine. It is indeed not unlikely, that the accentuation of the middle syllable may vary, with the change of the syllabic emphasis, and the decision of the quantity. I agree, however, with Mr. Steele, in thinking, that the liberty which was taken by Virgil in this place, was not, strictly, what the words of Quintilian might imply; but was, precisely, the putting the syllable lu in thesis, whereas it, naturally, should have been in arsis; or, in other words, Virgil put it into a place where it must be pronounced emphatically, though by its nature it was Such liberties, as the preceding one, we may add, unemphatic. occur most frequently towards the end of a line; and this circumstance may perhaps have arisen from the idea, that, in such a position, the syllable is the less likely to evade the αγωγή ρυθμικής έμφασεως, or drift of the rhythmical emphasis. Similar peculiarities, observable in other antient poets, may, probably, be accounted for on the like principle. In the versification of Homer, a vowel, naturally short, sometimes occurs as the first syllable of a foot, whether at the beginning of a verse, or in the middle of a word, the syllable, which is thetic, being rendered sufficiently prominent, under the drift of the rhythm, for the general harmony of the verse, by the ictus metricus or syllabic emphasis.1

This long Note, which may perhaps be deemed a very unimportant one, hastily transcribed and chiefly from memoranda, which had been lying by me for several years, was sent, at once, to the Month. Mag. for insertion, and began to appear in the year 1814. There is an evident coincidence between the concluding sentence of it, and an opinion, previously published, of Professor Dunbar's, in clucidation of the versification of Homer; with this difference, however, that those syllables which the learned Professor considers to be in arsis, I have considered as in trevis, the emphatic syllable being, in my opinion,

OF THE FIGURES OF PROSODY.

The syllables of words in verse are affected in eight different ways:—By Cæsura; by Synalæpha, and Ecthlipsis; Synæresis, and Diæresis; by Systole, and Diastole; and by Synapheia; which are commonly called the Figures of Prosody.

OF CÆSURA.

When, after finishing a foot, there remains one syllable of the word, this circumstance is called cæsura; a term which is also sometimes applied to the syllable itself thus cut off, and which forms the first part of the following foot.

There are commonly reckoned four species of cæsura; the triemimeris, penthemimeris, hephthemimeris, and ennemimeris; or, according to the Latin, the semiternaria, semi-quinaria, semiseptenaria, and seminovenaria; so named

By some, cæsura is not enumerated among the figures; systole and diastole are referred to poetic license; and ecthlipsis and synalæpha are included under the general term of elision.—The term cæsura is sometimes applied to that separation, or short pause, which, under the influence of the rhythmical movement, naturally occurs, in reading a verse; dividing the line, as it were, into two members. As in English, and other modern poetry, its place in the line seems to be determined, rather by the disposition of the syllabic emphasis of the words, in connexion sometimes with the sense, than by the mere feet or quantity. In Heroic poetry, it occurs chiefly after the penthemimeris; as

Tityre, tu patulæ ! recubans sub tegmine fagi—Virg. Sometimes after the two first syllables of the third foot,

Effigiem statuere | nefas quæ triste piaret—Virg. and in other positions. The rhythmical cæsura, at the end of the second foot, does not seem to contribute to the harmony of the line, especially when followed by a spondee.

Conjugium vocat | hoc prætexit nomine culpam—Virg.
This intermediate or rhythmical pause will be further noticed in the Observations on Hexameter Verse. It occurs in the middle of Pentameter.

thetic; and that, while he conceives the syllable to be lengthened by the ittes, I ascribe to the ictus no such power, merely conceiving that, by being placed in thesis, a short or doubtful syllable may, thus, be rendered sufficiently strong and prominent for the intenced rhythm. Previously, however, to the publication of Mr. Dunbar's valuable "Inquiry into the Versification of Homer," which, I believe, first appeared, anonymously, in the Class. Journ. for June, 1814, the present writer's opinions respecting these subjects had been intimated, with sufficient clearness, particularly under the Articles on Syllabic and Yorks: Emphasis, Cadence, &c. in an English Grammar, printed in the year 1812.

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from the places in which they are found in scanning a verse,

which the antients frequently did by half-feet.

1. The Triemineris is, when, after the first foot, or two half-feet, there remains a syllable terminating a word, or a third half-feet.

- 2. The Penthemimeris is, when, after two feet, or four half-feet, there remains a terminating syllable, or fifth half-foot.
- 3. The Hephthemimeris is, when, after three feet, or six half-feet, a syllable remains, which is the seventh half-foot.

4. The Ennemimeris¹ is, when, after tour feet, or eight half-feet, a syllable remains, which is the *ninth* half-foot.

The first three casura are in the following line,

Silves-trem | tenu-i | Mu-sam | meditaris avena—Virg.

All are in the following,

Ille la-tus | nive-um | mol-li | ful-tus | huacintho-Virg,

The preceding may be named syllabic casuras, or pauses. To these may be added the trochaic casura, as it has been named by some grammarians, and by Mr. Pickbourn; and the monosyllabic pause, which is also noticed by Mr. Pickbourn, and of which some mention is made in Versification, under the Great Alcaic.

The trochaic cæsura is formed either by a trochee remaining at the end of a word, after the completion of a foot, or

by a word consisting of a trochee: thus,

Cuncta prius ten-tātā; | sed immedicabile vulnus—Ovid, Infandum, re-gīnā, | jubes renovare dolorem—Virg. Per connubia nōstrā, | per inceptos Hymenæos—Virg.

A similar pause to that which is caused by the usual cæsura of a syllable sometimes arises from a monosyllable; thus,

De grege nunc | tibi vir, | nunc de | grege natus habendus—Ovid.

The general effects of cæsuræ are twofold:

1. They give smoothness, grace, and sweetness to a verse, since they connect the different words harmoniously together.

2. They often cause a syllable, naturally short, to be reckoned long, especially after the first, second, or third foot; and this circumstance, perhaps, arises from the pause, or suspension of the voice, which then, usually, ensues.

¹ To these some have added the *Hendechemimeris*, which is, when, after five feet, or ten half-feet, there remains a syllable, which is the *eleventh* half-foot; as,

Vertitur interea cœlum, et ruit ocea-no | nox-Virg. Parturiunt montes, nascetur ridicu-lus | mus-Hor.

But such instances are very rare, and to be imitated with great discretion.

After the first foot: as 1,

Pectori-būs | inhians, spirantia consulit exta—Virg.
After the second: as,

Omnia vincit am-or, et nos cedamus amori-Virg.

After the third: as,

Dona dehine auro gravi-ā, sectoque elephanto-Virg.

After the fourth: as,

Graius homo infectos linquens profu-gūs | hymenæos—Virg. Of all the metrical pauses³, the final one has been regarded as the most important; since it is said to possess the power of lengthening a final short syllable³, in every species of poetic composition.

The learner should remember that the first pause arising from cæsura is in the second foot; the second, or common pause, in the third; the third pause, in the fourth; and the fifth pause, in the last foot. He should also observe that, in using the cæsural mark, I have sometimes placed it at the cutting off, that is, before the syllable cut off, but oftener, especially in speaking of the consequent pause, after the syllable cut off. Either way, the syllable cannot be mistaken, being the last of a word.

These are all merely pauses of suspension; and, in reciting verses, do not require either elevation or depression, or any alteration in the tone of voice, unless they coincide with sentential pauses, (pauses in sense,) which are of a very different nature. Metrical pauses are carefully to be distinguished from sentential ones; for not only the cæsural, but even final pauses, frequently occur, where there is no stop in the sense; even between the noun and its

adjective, and the nominative case and its verb: as,

Ignea convexi | vis et | sine pondere cœli Emicuit.

Here the noun vis is separated from its adjective ignea by a cæsural pause, and from its verb emicuit by both a cæsural (monosyllabic) and a final pause.—Pickbourn's Dissert. on Metr. Pauses.

We do not imagine, however, that any pause really changes the quantity; but suppose that it only prolongs the time of recitation strictly belonging to the line, on the score of mere syllabic quantity. The pause, although it may extend the time of recitation, can have no effect on the syllable itself, for the general time is not liable to modification from any power, except, perhaps, that of rhythm. Now, the pause itself must obey the same power; and, therefore, will probably be shorter at the end of a verse which terminates in a long syllable, than where the final syllable is a short one. We are aware, that eminent critics, and among them, the learned Dr. Clarke, entertain an opinion somewhat different, with respect to the effect of the pause. He asserts (Il. i. 51) that "the last syllable of every verse is universally, not common, as grammarians pretend, but always, of necessity, long, propter pausum istam,

OF SYNALCEPHA.

Synalopha cuts off the final vowel or diphthong of a word, when the following word begins with a vowel or diphthong, as in the following lines,

Terra antiqua, potens armis atque ubere glebæ. Quidve moror, si omnes uno ordine habetis Achivos.

Dardanidæ infensi pænas cum sanguine poscunt—Virg. in which terra, atque, si, uno, ordine lose their last vowel, in scanning, and Dardanidæ its diphthong, because the following words begin with vowels, (h being considered a mere aspiration,) and are thus scanned;

Ter' antiqua potens armis atqu' ubere glebæ.

Quidve moror, s' omnes un' ordin' habetis Achivos. Dardanid' infensi pænas cum sanguine poscunt.

Note 1. Synalcepha is sometimes omitted. (1) Regularly, as in the interjections o, heu, ah, proh, væ, vah, hei; as,

O pater, o hominum, Divûmque æterna potestas!—Virg. Heu ubi pacta fides, ubi quæ jurare solebas—Ovid.

Ah! ego non possum tanta videre mala—Tibull.

Also in Io, by Ovid: as,

Et bis Io Arethusa, Io Arethusa, vocavit.

But o is sometimes made short: as,

Te Corydon, ŏ Alexi; trahit sua quemque voluptas—Virg.

(2) By poetic license, as in the following lines; Et succus *pecori*, et lac subducitur agnis.

qua, in fine versus, syllabæ ultimæ pronuntiatio necessario producitur." But pause and protracted utterance, it may be observed, differ from each other, as much as silence and sound. Mr. Steele goes so far as to assert, that pauses ought to be accounted as parts of the metre; but no pauses can, we apprehend, be reckoned parts of the metre, except those which accompany short syllables, when they occupy the places of long ones, and which may, therefore, be considered as metrical.—The cæsural pause also, while it conduces to the better discrimination of the feet from the words, affords rest to the organs of speech, and produces delay in the recitation. And even if the syllable itself be not lengthened, yet, standing at the beginning of the next foot, it will be rendered sufficiently prominent, by receiving, from the ictus or syllabic emphasis, such an energy of sound, as will fully enable it to sustain the following syllables of its own foot. It may be remarked, particularly in a deliberate utterance, that, independently of any casural pause, a very short intermission of voice necessarily precedes every strongly emphatic syllable; and this pause, too, will count in the aggregate time of the line.

Posthabita coluisse Samo: hic illius arma.

Stant et juniperi, et castaneæ hirsutæ-Virg.

This, which is called in Latin a hiatus, is not to be admitted without some reason into a verse. It sometimes, however, happens, if the preceding vowel is short, especially at the end of a sentence, where, in course, a pause takes place; as in the following line,

Et vera incessu patuit dea. Ille ubi matrem-Virg.

Note 2. Long vowels and diphthongs, when they are not cut off, become common.

They are short in the following lines,

Insulæ Ionio in magno, quas dira Celæno.

Credimus? an qui amant, ipsi sibi somnia fingunt. Victor apud rapidum Simoënta sub Iliz alto—Virg.

They are long in the following,

Ante tibi *Eoæ* Atlantides abscondantur. Amphion Diræus in *Actæō* Aracyntho.

Lamentis gemituque et fæmineō ululatu—Virg. Jactari quos cernis in Ioniō immenso—Ovid.

Sometimes an instance of their being long and short occurs in the same verse; as,

Ter sunt conatī imponere Pelio Ossam.

Glauco et Panopea, et Inoo Melicertæ-Virg.

OF ECTHLIPSIS.

Ecthlipsis cuts off the final m and the preceding vowel, the following word beginning with a vowel: as,

Leniter ex merito quicquid patiare ferendum est—Ovid. O curas hominum, ô quantum est in rebus inane—Pers. which are to be thus read, in scanning,

Leniter ex merito quicquid patiare ferend' est O curas homin' ô quant' est in rebus inane.

Note 1. The antients sometimes retained the m and the vowel, which they made short: as,

Corpŏrŭm officium est quoniam premere omnia deorsum
—Lucr.

But the um of officium is elided.

Note 2. S was formerly elided, not only before a vowel, with the loss of a syllable; but before a consonant also, without the loss of a syllable, as in

Tum laterali' dolor, certissimu' nunciu' mortis-Lucil.

Nam, si de nihilo fierent, ex omnibu' rebus-Lucret.

At fixus nostris, tu dabi' supplicium—Catull.

Note 3. Under the influence of Synapheia, both synalcepha

and ecthlipsis are found in the last syllable of a verse, where the elision takes place through the vowel at the beginning of the following verse, provided no long pause intervenes at the end of the line, by which the voice is suspended: as,

Sternitur infelix alieno vulnere, cœlumque Adspicit, et dulces moriens reminiscitur Argos—Virg. Jamque iter emensi, turres ac tecta Latinorum Ardua cernebant juvenes, murosque subibant—Virg.

ADDITIONAL OBSERVATIONS ON SYNALCEPHA AND ECTHLIPSIS.

1. These figures fall more pleasantly before a long syllable: as,

Tum quoque nil fecit, nisi quod facere ipse coegi—Ovid. Postquam introgressi, et coram data copia fandi—Virg. But the elision of a long syllable is harsh, when it is followed by a short one: as,

Troja, nefas! commune sepulchrum Europæ, Asiæque

—Catull.

2. The Synalcepha has a particular sweetness, if it falls on the same vowel as begins the following word: as,

Ille ego qui quondam gracili modulatus avenâ—Virg. Ergo omnis longo solvit se Teucria luctu—Virg.

3. Care must be taken that the sound arising from the use of these figures be not harsh and disagreeable; as in

Quis me uno vivit felicior, aut mage nostrâ hâc—Catull. Quod cum ita sit, nolim statuas me mente maligna—Catull.

4. Elisions should not be frequent, nor, without some particular reason, should there be more than two in one verse, especially in an elegiac, which requires great smoothness. On the contrary, in a heroic verse, several synalæphæ sometimes occasion dignity and majesty; and, as in the following line, a particular sweetness,

Phyllida amo ante alias: nam me discedere flevit—Virg. But in the following lines, horror is produced by elision,

Monstrum horrendum, informe, ingens, cui lumen ademptum—Virg.

Tela inter media, atque horrentes Marte Latinos—Virg. 5. Nor should elision commonly happen at the beginning of a verse, as in

Nam ut ferulâ cædas meritum majora subire—Hor. But Virgil has made an elision at the beginning, not, however, without a reason, or without beauty: as

Si ad vitulam spectes, nihil est quod pocula laudes.

6. Elision is harsh at the beginning of the sixth foot of a heroic; as in

Loripidem rectus derideat, Æthiopem albus—Juv. Nunquid de Dacis audisti? nil equidem, ut tu—Hor.

7. Also after the first hemistich of a pentameter; as in Herculis, Antæique, Hesperidunque comes—Propert.

8. Elision is harsh in the last syllable of the fifth foot of a heroic verse; as in

Difficile est longum subito deponere amorem—Catull.

9. Also in the last dactyl of a pentameter; unless it is used with great discretion; as in

Quadrijugos cernes sæpe resistere equos—Ovid.

It is not, perhaps, easy to determine how the antients treated their elided syllables, whether, as in English, a slight, imperfect sound of them might have been distinguishable, or whether, as in the usual mode of scanning, they were wholly omitted. It has been already noticed that all long syllables are not equally long, nor all short syllables equally short. Mr. Pickbourn is inclined to think that the elided syllables were, in some degree, heard ; and observes that if we suppose the quantity of a dactyl or spondee to be equal to sixteen, I think we may be allowed to conjecture that the length of each individual syllable might probably be not very different from that which is marked in the following lines:

Notitiam primosque gradus vicinia fecit.

Littora: multum ille et terris jactatus et alto."

OF SYNÆRESIS.

Synæresis is the contraction of two syllables in the same word, into one syllable.

There are two kinds of contraction, Synæresis, strictly so

called, and Synecphonesis.

Synæresis, properly so called, is when the two vowels remaining become a diphthong; as ae changed into ae, in Phaton instead of Phaëton; ei into ei, as in the genitives

¹ In regard to m elided, Quinctilian's words are clear; "Eadem litera, quoties ultima est, et vocalem verbi sequentis ita contingit, ut in cam transire possit, etiam si scribitur, tamen parum exprimitur," See Quinct, lib. ix. cap. 4. He says, "non eximitur, sed obscuratur." Indeed, according to the etymology of the word, Synalæpha conveys the idea of two syllables or vowels blended into one, rather than of the elision of one of them.

Thesei, Orphei, Persei used as dissyllables, Activiti, Ulyssei, Oilei, as trisyllables. Thus also oi in proinde, as a dissyllable; ei in reice formed by syncope from rejice; ui in huic, cui, &c. used as monosyllables.

Cum te flagranti dejectum fulmine *Phæton*—Varro. Notus amor Phædræ, nota est injuria *Thesei*—Ovid. *Proinde* tona eloquio, solitum tibi - - - - - - - - Virg.

Tityre, pascentes a flumine reice capellas—Virg.

Filius huic contra, torquet qui sidera mundi—Virg. In some names of Greek origin, as Throdotus, Throdosius, &c. synæresis is sometimes accompanied with a change of one of the vowels, agreeably to the Doric dialect, as Theudotus, Theudosius.

Quam tulit a smvo Theudotus hoste necem—Ovid. Theudosii, pacem laturi gentibus, ibant—Claudian.

Synecphonesis (named also Episynalæpha and Synizesis) is when one of two vowels in the same word is cut off, or absorbed in the pronunciation; as in aurea, Junio, used as dissyllables; and quoad as a monosyllable.

Aurea percussum virga, versumque venenis—Virg. Nos miranda quidem, sed nuper consule Junio—Juv. Hæredes voluit; quoad vixit, credidit ingens—Hor. E and i are the chief letters elided by Synecphonesis.

I. The letter E. (1.) Before a; as mea, ea, considered as monosyllables by the comic writers; antehac, eddem, as dissyllables; anteambulo, alveuria, as words of four syllables.

Quod si forte fuisse antehac cadem omnia credis—Lucr. Una eademque via sanguisque animusque feruntur—Virg. Sum comes ipse tuus, tumidique anteambulo regis—Mart. Seu lento fuerint alvearia vimine texta—Virg.

(2) Before another e; as in deest, a monosyllable, deero, deerit, prehendo, vehemens, dissyllables, mehercule, a trisyllable.

Vilis amicorum est annona, bonis ubi quid deest—Hor. Divitis uber agri, Troiæve opulentia deerit—Virg. Prêndere quæ possis oculorum lumine aperto—Lucr. Vehemens et liquidus puroque simillimus amni—Hor. Noli vereri; at ille, facerem mehercule—Phædr.

(3) Before i; as in dein, dehinc, monosyllables; deinde, deinceps, aurcis, ferrei, anteit, dissyllables; and in anteire,

anteirent, and anteactus, trisyllables.

Dein clamore pari concurritur, et vice teli—Juv.

Deinde torus junxit, nunc ipsa pericula jungunt—Ovid.

Ferreique Eumenidum thalami, et discordia demens—Virg.

Te semper anteit dira necessitas—(Alcaic) Hor.

Ergo anteire metus, juvenemque exstinguere pergit—Flace.

Qui candore nives *anteirent*, cursibus auras—Virg. Nam si grata fuit tibi vita *anteacta* priorque—Lucr.

Note, however, that the e of de is not in all such cases subject to synæresis, or synecphonesis, for we find dehinc, deinde, &c. and it is found with its original quantity in dehortatur, and in deest, in two passages, one quoted from Ennius by A. Gellius, and in one from Statius.

Annibal audaci cum pectore dehortatur. Deest servitio plebes, hos ignis egentes.

(4) Before o; as in meo, eo, used as monosyllables by the comic writers; eodem, eosdem, alveo, seorsum, deorsum, as dissyllables; Euristheo, graveolens, as trisyllables.

Uno eodemque igni, sic nostro Daphnis amore—Virg. Eosdem habuit secum, quibus est elata, capillos—Prop. Cum refluit campis, et jam se condidit alveo—Virg.

Nam per aquas quæcunque cadunt atque aëra deorsum— Lucr.

Lucr.

Et seorsum varios rerum sentire colores—Lucr. Rege sub Euristheo, fatis Junonis iniquæ—Virg. Inde ubi venêre ad fauces graveolentis Averni—Virg.

(5) Before u; as in meus, meum, eum, which are likewise

considered by the comic writers, as monosyllables.

II. The letter I. (1) Before a; as in omnia, a dissyllable; vindemiator and semianimis, as words of four syllables.

Bis patriæ cecidêre manus: quin protinus *omnia*—Virg. *Vindemiator*, et invictus, cui sæpe viator—Hor. Cædit *semianimis* Rutulorum calcibus arva—Virg.

(2) Before e; as in vietus, a dissyllable; and semiermis, a trisyllable.

Quis sudor vietis, et quam malus undique membris—Hor. Semiermenque manum sternendam objecerat hosti—Sil.

(3) Before another *i*; as in *dii*, *diis*, *ii*, *iis*, monosyllables; *iidem*, *iisdem*, dissyllables; *denariis*, a trisyllable.

Di meliora velint, quanquam non ista precanda—Ovid. Præcipitatur aquis, et aquis nox surgit ab isdem—Ovid. Denariis tamen hoc non emo, Basse, tribus—Mart.

Such genitives as consili and imperi occur in Horace. The forms consilii, servitii, auxilii, &c. are not found in Virgil but frequently occur in Ovid

Virgil, but frequently occur in Ovid.

(4) Before o; as in semihomo, fluviorum, considered as

But in a different reading, the e is elided.

words of three syllables, and tenuiore, considered as a word of four.

Semihominis Caci facies quam dira tenebat-Virg.

Fluviorum Rex Eridanus, camposque per omnes-Virg.

Ortus, et instantem cornu tenuiore videbat-Stat.

In such words it is not improbable that i may have the same sound as y, in the English word yore; thus tenu-yore.

(5) Before u; as in totius, regarded as a dissyllable; in promontorium, as a word of four syllables; and, perhaps, in

certain genitives plural ending in ium.

Magnanimosque duces, totiusque ex ordine gentis—Virg. Inde legit Capreas, promontoriumque Minervæ—Ovid.

Flos Veronensium depereunt juvenum—Catul.

A, o, u, are less frequently elided, or, in the language of grammarians, absorbed in the pronunciation.

III. A is elided, in contraire; as,

Tigribus? aut sævos Libyæ contraire leones?—Stat.

IV. O is sometimes found absorbed before another o; as in cohonesto, used as a trisyllable; and in cooperiunt, and cooluerint, used as words of four syllables, by Lucretius, ii. 1060, and vi. 490; but in Mr. Wakefield's edition of this poet, coaluerint is read instead of the latter word.

Tandem coaluerint ea, quæ, conjecta repente.

V. *U* is sometimes elided before other vowels; as in tua, sua, tuo, suo, duæ, considered as monosyllables by the comic writers; in suapte, patrui, as dissyllables; and duellica, as a trisyllable. In these the *u* seems to have a similar pronunciation to that of the *u* in suadeo, suetus, or of the *w* in the English dwell, or of the *u* in persuade.

Et simili ratione animalia suapte vagari—Lucr. Nocturnique canum gemitus et limina patrui—Stat.

Lanigeræ pecudes, et equorum duellica proles.

To Syneephonesis may likewise be referred the changing of the vowels i and u into the consonants j and v, (which were then probably sounded somewhat like the English y in you, and w,) by which two syllables are contracted into one; as in genva, tenvis, dissyllables; arjetat, tenvia, abjete, pitvita, trisyllables; and parjetibus, Nasidjenus, words of four syllables; instead of genua, tenuis, arietat, tenuia, &c.

Propterea quia corpus aquæ naturaque tenvis—Lucr. Genva labant, gelido concrevit frigore sanguis—Virg. Arjetat in portas et duros objice postes—Virg. Velleraque ut foliis depectant tenvia Seres—Virg. Ædificant, sectâque intexunt abjete costas—Virg.

Præcipuè sanus, nisi cum pitvita molesta est—Hor. Parjetibusque premunt arctis, et quatuor addunt—Virg.

Ut Nasidjeni juvit te cœna beati-Hor.

Note 1. Sometimes Synalæpha and Synecphonesis meet together: as in

Uno eodemque tulit partu, paribusque revinxit

Serpentum spiris - - - - - - Virg.

Scan thus, Un' odemque tulit, &c.

Note 2. In the following words, Huic, cui, Dii, Diis, iidem, iisdem, dein, deinde, proinde, deest, deeram, deessem, deero, deesse, anteambulo, anteit, antehac, semihomo, semianimis, and a few others, a contraction of the two syllables is more common among the best poets, than a separation.

Synæresis and Synecphonesis differ from Crasis, in this, that they take place properly in poetry, the last, also in prose.

OF DIÆRESIS.

Diæresis (which is also called Dialysis) is the splitting of one syllable into two syllables.

This is done in three different ways;

I. By the division of a diphthong into two syllables; as aulai, aurai, instead of aulæ, auræ, Orpheüs, Perseüs¹, Troïæ, trisyllables; Naïadum, Harpyïas, words of four syllables.

Aulai in medio libabant pocula Bacchi-Virg.

Et finitur in Andromeda, quam Perseüs armis-Manil.

Misit infestos Troïæ ruinis—(Sapph.) Senec.

Ægle Naïadum pulcherrima, jamque videnti—Virg. Circumsistentes reppulit Harpyïas—(Pentam.) Rutil.

The Ionic dialect in Greek frequently resolving the diphthong a and y into yi, the Roman poets have sometimes availed themselves of that license in Greek words originally written with a diphthong; thus

Annuit, atque dolis risit Cytherētă repertis—Virg. Exigit indicii memorem Cytherētă pœnam—Ovid.

II. By resolving the consonants j and v into the vowels i and u; as in silia, solait, for silva, solvit; subiecta, a word of four syllables, instead of subjecta.

Aurarum et silüæ metu—(Glycon.) Hor.

Quod zonam solüit diu ligatam—(Phaleuc.) Catull. Si qua ferventi subïecta Cancro est—(Sapph.) Senec.

¹ In this case, *Perseus* and *Orpheus* are considered as of the second declension; but it is better to refer them, in poetry, to the third, according to which, Greek proper names in *eus* (gen. *eos.*) have the *eu* a diphthong.

The first vowel of *silva*, whether it be supposed to be derived from the Greek, or from the Latin *sileo*, may be considered as naturally short, but for the position; and likewise the first o of *solvo* and *volvo* and their compounds, as is visible in their participles *sŏlutus* and *vŏlutus*, in which the position is removed.

This figure is very common in the compounds of solvo

and volvo: as,

Stamina non ulli dissolüenda Deo—(Pentam.) Tib. Debuerant fusos evolüisse suos—(Pentam.) Ovid.

Indeed it is not improbable, that in many lines, in which silv-, solv-, and volv-, are usually supposed to constitute the latter part of a spondee, the resolution of them into sili, soli, and voli, as the two last syllables of a dactyl, may produce an assonantia verborum more adapted to the nature of the subjects to be represented, as in the following lines expressive of the waving of trees, the rolling of a stone, and the shivering of the limbs of Æneas.

Et claro silŭas cernes Aquilone moveri—Virg. Saxum ingens völŭunt alii, radiisque rotarum—Virg. Extemplo Æneæ sölŭuntur frigore membra—Virg.

When the nature of the verse does not prevent it, a discress of the syllable containing j may likewise be sometimes suspected in other words; as in *Iülius*, for *Julius*; *Iüno* for *Juno*; *Iüpiter* for *Jupiter*; *Iüdice* for *Judice*, since it is well known that jam is used by the comic writers as a dissyllable, and that *ctiam*, which is only *et jam*, is always acknowledged as a trisyllable; thus,

Sed Proculus longà veni chăt i ulius Albâ-Ovid.

Grammatici certant; et ad hūc sŭb i jūdice lis est—Her.

III. By giving an explicit and distinct sound to a separated from the following vowel, (which, without this figure, becomes mute, or, rather, has the sound of the English w, after g, q, and s;) as in aqüæ, süctus, süasit, Süevos, considered words of three syllables; in relangüit, reliquas, words of four.

Quæ calidum faciunt aqüæ tactum atque vaporem—Lucr. Cum mihi non tantum furesque feræque süctæ—Hor. Atque alios alii inrident, Veneremque süadent—Lucr. Fundat ab extremo flavos Aquilone Sücvos—Lucan. Imposito fratri moribunda relangüit ore—Ovid. Reliqüas tamen esse vias in mente patenteis—Lucr.

OF SYSTOLE.

Systole is the chortening of a syllable otherwise long by

nature, or by position. Thus the poets sometimes shorten

Orion, on the first syllable; as in

Cum subitò assurgens fluctu nimbosus *ŏrion*—Virg. although in the Greek it is written with a long o, and is, therefore, naturally long; as in

Sævus ubi *orion* hybernis conditur undis—Virg.

In the same manner Horace seems to have shortened the last of palus; as in

Regis opus; sterilisve diu palüs, aptaque remis. (See,

however, US final.)

But by others it is universally made long; as in Limosoque palūs obducat pascua junco—Virg.

And here it is long too by cæsura.

Palūs inertis fœda Cocyti jacet—Seneca.

In the same way, the e in viden', naturally long, is made short; for it is a contraction of videne; also the i of satin', a contraction of satine, in which it is long by position; $h\ddot{o}die$ for $h\ddot{o}c$ die; multimodis for multis modis, &c.

Ducere multimodis voces, et flectere cantus—Lucr. For viden' and satin', see N final; and for hodic, see O in

compound words.

To this figure may be referred the shortening of a vowel long by position, after the elision of one of the consonants, or a double consonant; as ŏbicis for ōbjicis; ădicit for ādjicit; rěicit for rējicit; and such words as ăperio, ŏperio (probably, ad, and ob, pario), ŏmitto, instead of ōbmitto, &c.

Cur obicis Magno tumulum, manesque vagantes-Lucan.

Si quid nostra tuis *ădicit* vexatio rebus—Mart. Tela manu, *reicitque* canes in vulnus hiantes—Stat.

Pleraque differat, et præsens in tempus *ŏmittat*—Hor. To Systole have been referred certain preterites found

with the penultimate short; as

Obstupui, steteruntque comæ, et vox faucibus hæsit— Vira.

Miscus runtque herbas, et non innoxia verba—Virg. Matri longa decem tulërunt fastidia menses—Virg.

To these may be added profuërunt in Tibullus; abiërunt

in Phædrus; defuerunt in Martial, and some others.

By some these anomalies have been attributed to the mistakes of transcribers, who, it is supposed, may have written erunt instead of *crant*, or in some cases *crint*, both which terminations are found in certain editions, or manuscripts; and, in many instances, the sense not only admits the alte-

' In this and similar examples, may not the u be sounded like v or w, by synecphonesis, thus misc verunt?

ration, but seems improved by it. Others have contended, that the authors were inadvertently guilty of a breach of prosody. And the last supposition is, that the e was originally common, especially in verbs of the third conjugation, and the words of Diomedes are quoted in confirmation; "Fere in tertio ordine plerumque veteres tertia per-"sona finitiva temporis perfecti, numeri pluralis, E mediam "vocalem corripiunt, quasi legerunt, emerunt, &c." But notwithstanding this assertion, and the several instances which can be produced, in which e is found short, it is by no means safe to consider it common, its proper quantity being long, unless by poetic license.

Such words as *unius*, in which the *i* was said to be short by Systole, are usually considered as common. They are, however, all long in prose, with the exception, perhaps, of *alterius*, a peculiarity for which there does not appear to be

any good reason.

OF DIASTOLE.

Diastole, or Ectasis, is the lengthening of a syllable otherwise naturally short; as the first in Priamides and Arabia; and the second in Macedonia.

Atque hic Priamides, Nihil ô tibi, amice, relictum-Virg.

Et domus intactæ te tremit Arabiæ—Propert.

Qui clypeo, galeâque, Macêdoniâque 1 sarissâ—Ovid.

That the first syllable of the first two is naturally short, is evident from its being always short in their primitives *Priamus* and *Arabs*. The second in *Macedo* is also short.

To this figure are referred those words in which re, naturally short, is made long, by doubling the following consonant; as relligio, relliquia, reppulit, rettulit, redducere, &c., and some other words, compounded with re; instead of religio, reliquia, &c.

Tantum rēlligio potuit suadere malorum—Lucr.

Troas relliquias Danaûm, atque immitis Achillei-Virg.

Et res hæredem repperit illa suum-Ovid.

² Al. deducere—Bentl.

Di tibi dent captà classem redducere Trojà—Hor.

In such cases it is asserted that formerly it was usual to double the consonant; but this practice has been condemned by the most eminent modern editors of the classics, as contrary to original usage, and they have rejected one conso-

¹ The poet seems to have imitated the Greeks, who, to avoid a concourse of short vowels, sometimes changed a short vowel into a long one, and wrote Μακηδονία instead of Μακεδονία.

nant in all such compounds, the verb $r\bar{c}ddo$ alone excepted, in which a d is never omitted. But, though written with only one consonant, the vowel must be sounded long, as

if supposed to be followed by two consonants.

The same remarks are perhaps applicable to the first syllable of quotidie, quotidianus, and quatuor, (quōttidie, quōttidianus, said to have been formerly written also cottidie, cottidianus, quāttuor,) which are sometimes found long, the last, especially in Virgil and Horace; although the first two are, doubtless, short by nature, and, from observing that the a in quăter, quăterni, &c., is short, it may be reasonably presumed that it is so in quatuor likewise.

Conjugis in culpà flagravit quotidiana—Catul.

Sis bonus, O felixque tuis! en $qu\bar{a}tuor$ aras—Virg. In the same manner the e in Porsena is made long, by doubling the n; as

Nec non Tarquinium ejectum Porsēnna jubebat—Virg.

Otherwise the penultimate is short; as

Cernitur effugiens ardentem *Porsĕna* dextram—Sil. Perhaps, the name might be written either way, indifferently.

OBSERVATIONS ON SYSTOLE AND DIASTOLE.

The use of these two figures, or the changing of the due quantity of syllables, arises from two causes; Necessity, owing to the nature of the verse, and Poetical license.

1. The first takes place when the nature of the verse does not admit some particular word with its real quantity; and when no other word can be expediently introduced fully adequate to convey its meaning. The principal causes of this, are, first, the meeting of more than two short syllables, especially in hexameter, or pentameter; for, in this case, one of them must be made long; as the first in Arabius, Asiacus, Italia, Philosophus, Polydamas, Priamides, pugilibus, Sicclides, &c.; the second in Canicula, cuniculus, cuticula, febricula, Lemuria, Theophilus, &c.; and the third in Bonifacius, Hilarion, Maccdonia, &c.: and, secondly, the circumstance of a short syllable being between two long syllables, in which case, the word cannot be admitted into certain kinds of verse unless it is made long; as the second in delibutus, imbecillus, matricida, parricida, Vaticanus, &c.

2. Poetic license is, when, without such evident necessity, the quantity of a syllable is changed; and to this, some have attributed the shortening of the penultimate of unius, illius, &c., and the lengthening of the same in tenc-

2 F

bræ, volucris, locuples, &c. While others,—considering, that, even with regard to proper names, in which a greater latitude as to quantity seemed to be tolerated, Ovid apologizes to Tuticanus, for not saying any thing of him in his verse, which did not admit his name, as it has the second syllable short between two long syllables, and that Martial excuses himself for not inserting, in his verse, the word Earinus, consisting of four short,—have contended, that it is by no means improbable, that many of those words, whose quantity we find occasionally long or short, a circumstance often referred to the power of these two figures, were originally considered as common, and are, therefore, not at all under the influence of any licentia poetica.

This license was much more frequent among the Greek poets than the Latin; for we find, among the former, the same syllable of the same work sometimes long and sometimes short even in the same line. Such liberties, however, are not now to be taken, without great caution and discretion; for, as Servius says, "In licentia magis inventis

quam inveniendis utimur."

OF SYNAPHEIA.

Synapheia is that figure, by which the concluding syllable of a verse is metrically connected with the initial syllable of the succeeding one, so that the two lines run on continuously, like a single verse; thus

Fugiat vultus fortuna prior;
Felix quisquis novit famulum
Regemque pati, vultusque suos
Variare potest. Vires pepulit
Pondusque mali, casus animo
Qui tulit æquo—(Anapæst.) Senec.

Here the short syllables, or, um (for final m, when not cut off, is short) and it, are lengthened by the concourse of consonants. By this figure, verses are sometimes connected, under the influence of Synalæpha and Ecthlipsis; thus

Jactemur, doceas; ignari hominumq; locorumque Erramus, vento huc et vastis fluctibus acti—Virg.

i. e. locorum-|-qu' Erramus.

Jamque iter emensi, turres et tecta Latino-rum
Ardua cernebant juvenes, muroque subibant—Virg.
In such instances, it may be observed that there is gene-

rally but a very short pause at the end of the verse.

In the Sapphic verse, we sometimes find simple words di-

vided, a circumstance which has been referred to Synapheia; thus,

Labitur ripâ, Jove non probante, u-

-xorius amnis—Hor. od. 1, 2, 19 (ex edit. Bentleii). But the division more frequently takes place between the members of a compound word; thus,

Naturæ Deus humanæ, mortalis in unum-

Quodque caput, vultu mutabilis, albus et ater—Hor. Ep. 2,

2, 188.

It was laid down as a rule, by the ancient grammarians, that the last syllable of every verse might be considered as common. But the Anapæstic verse, and the Ionic a minore, end in a long syllable, or a syllable rendered long by being taken in metrical connexion with the following line; so that, under the influence of this figure, the rules of position are just as applicable at the end of these two kinds of verse, as if the whole series of verses were written in continuation. Hermann observes, ultimæ versuum syllabæ non sunt communes, sed eadem subtilitate, quæ in mediis versibus, expenduntur. It was in these two kinds of verses, that the law of Synapheia was most strictly regarded. In other species of verse, it may have occasionally taken place, to a limited extent.

OF POETRY.

A Poem (Carmen) is composed of verses, or lines; and

a Verse, of feet.

A verse is a single line of poetry, and is formed by repeating the same foot a certain number of times, changing it, sometimes, to equivalent or other feet.

A couplet, or two verses, is called a Distich; a half-

verse, a Hemistich.

A verse containing its exact measure is called Acatalectic; as in the following dimeter Iambic,

Musæ Jovis sunt filiæ.

A verse wanting a syllable at the end, is called Catalectic; as, Musæ Jovem canebant.

A verse wanting a whole foot at the end, is called Brachycatalectic; as,

Musæ Jovis gnatæ.

A verse having a redundant syllable, or two, is called Hypercatalectic, or Hypermeter; as,

Musæ sorores sunt Minervæ. Musæ sorores Palladis lugent. A verse wanting a syllable at the beginning, is called

Acephalous.

To scan a Latin verse, is to divide it into its several constituent feet.

OF FEET.

A Foot consists of two or more syllables of a certain quantity.

There are commonly reckoned twenty-eight kinds of feet. Those consisting of two or three syllables, are called simple; others, as those of four, are called compound.

There are four feet of two syllables:

- 1. A Pyrrhic, (*Pyrrhichius*) two short; as Deus.
- 2. A Spondee, (Spondeus) two long; as fundunt.
- 3. An Iambus, (Iambus) a short and a long; as legunt.
- 4. A Trochee, or Choree, (Trochæus, or Cho-
- reus) a long and a short; as . . . ūrmä.

Eight feet of three syllables.

- 1. A Dactyl, (Dactylus) one long and two cārmină. short; as
- 2. An Anapest, (Anapæstus) two short and animos. one long; as
 - 3. A Tribrac, (Tribrachys) three short; as făcere.
- 4. A Molossus, (Molossus) three long; as dīxērūnt. 5. An Amphibrac, (Amphibrachys) a short, a
- ămore. long, and a short; as
 - 6. An Amphimacer, (Amphimacer, or Creticus) a long, a short, and a long; as . cāstitās.
- 7. A Bacchic, (Bacchius) a short, and two
- 8. An Antibacchic, (Antibacchius) two long, and one short; as

There are sixteen compound feet, of four syllables. Of these, four are the same foot doubled; four are a combination of contrary feet; and there are four in which long syllables predominate; and four in which short syllables predominate.

The same foot doubled.

- 1. A Proceleusmatic, (Proceleusmaticus)

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3. A Diiambus, (Diiambus) 2 Iambuses; as	ămāverānt. comprobāvit.
Contrary feet.	
5. A great Ionic, (Ionicus major) a Spondee and a Pyrrhic; as	cēlsīssimus.
 6. A small Ionic, (Ionicus minor) a Pyrrhic and a Spondee; as 7. A Choriambus, (Choriambus) a Cho- 	properābānt.
ree and an Lambus; as	terrificant.
8. \(\) An Antispast, \(\) (Antispastus \(\) an Iambus and a Choree; as \(\).	ŭdhæsīssĕ.
Feet in which long syllables predominate.	
9. First Epitrit, (<i>Epitritus primus</i>) an Iambus and Spondee; as	ămāvērūnt.
10. Second Epitrit, (Epitritus secundus) a Choree and Spondee; as 11. Third Epitrit, (Epitritus tertius) a	concitārī.
Spondee and Iambus; as	dīscōrdĭās.
12. Fourth Epitrit, (<i>Epitritus quartus</i>) a Spondee and Choree; as	ēxpēctārĕ.
Feet in which short syllables predominate.	
First Pæon, (Pæon primus) a Choree and a Pyrrhic; as	tēmpörībŭs.
14. Second Paon, (Paon secundus) an Iambus and a Pyrrhic; as	pötēntiä.
Third Pæon, (Pæon tertius) a Pyrrhic and a Choree; as	ănimātŭs.
16. (Fourth Pæon, (Pæon quartus) a Pyr-	
To these may be added another compound	temeritās.
foot, of five syllables, mentioned by Cicero	
and Originality (I also all Contin)	

named Dochmius or Dochimus; as ăberraverant. Those feet are termed isochronous or equivalent, which consist of equal times, as the spondee, the anapest, the dactyl, and the proceleusmatic, one long time being regarded

and Quinctilian, (an Iambus and a Cretic,)

equal to two short 1.

¹ Dr. Carey observes that "some critics will not allow any feet to be isochronous, unless they be so in their separate members, as the four above compared, whose first members all consist of equal times, and in like manner their second. Hence they

OF VERSES.

The most usual kinds of verses are, the Hexameter, Pentameter, Asclepiadic, Glyconic, Sapphic, Adonic, Phaleucian, Pherecratic, Iambic, Scazon, (or Choliambus,) Anacreontic, Trochaïc, Anapæstic; to which may be added the Carmen Horatianum, comprehending the two Alcaïcs and the Archilochian Iambic dimeter, hypercatalectic.

Verses are of different lengths, some consisting of two feet, others of three, four, five, &c., as will be seen in the

following explanation of them.

OF HEXAMETER.

Hexameter, or Heroic verse, consists of six feet, of which the fifth foot is usually a dactyl, the sixth, a spondee; and the other four, either dactyls, or spondees, indiscriminately: as,

Aut pro desse vo lunt aut dele ctare po et — Hor.
Tu nihil invi tâ di cas faci asve Mi nervâ—Hor.
Inton si cri nes longâ cer vice fluebant—Tibull.

do not consider the trochee as isochronous to the jambus, or the amphibrachys to any of the above four." He adds, "however that may be, it often has forcibly struck me, even in reading prose, that the amphibrachys, though apparently isochronous to the dactyl, is in reality somewhat longer in the duration of its sound. Reclūde, (ex. gr.) resūme, repelle, actually require more time for their distinct enunciation, than those same syllables, when transposed into dactyls, clūděrě, sūměrě, pēllěrě; the voice dwelling longer on each of the short syllables, when separate, than when connected together." I believe the remark to be correct, and the following to be the chief causes of the difference. The middle syllable of the amphibrachys is emphatic; and it will be found, that, in speaking, a short pause precedes it, to enable the speaker to prepare for giving it sufficient strength. This short pause, though it does not lengthen the preceding syllable, will yet be counted with it, and thus somewhat increase the time of recitation. With respect to the time, too, of the last syllable, it is probable, that there is a small increase, all final vowels, I am inclined to think, being of nearly equal length, as the sound is not immediately terminated by articulation. It may be added, that all long syllables are not equally long, nor all short syllables equally short, and that the final syllable of the dactyl is stronger, and probably longer, than its middle syllable, and stronger than the extremes of the amphibrachys, which, from their position, in regard to the emphatic syllable, are of equal remissness. No two feet, I apprehend, can be perfectly isochronous, unless there is, not only a certain conformity in their syllables, but an agreement in the situation of their ictus. Besides, certain combinations of the same letters often coalesce more readily, than others do.

Sometimes the fifth foot is a spondee, whence the verse is named *Spondaic*; and this generally happens when the description is intended to be grave, majestic, slow, mournful, or the like, as

Cara Deûm soboles, magnum Jovis incrementum—Virg. Proximus huic, longo sed proximus intervallo—Virg.

Constitit, atque oculis Phrygia agmina cīrcūmspexit—Virg. This species of the verse has generally a dactyl as the fourth foot; and is commonly ended by a word of four syllables, as in the above-cited examples.

But it is sometimes found otherwise; as in

Aut leves ocreas lento ducunt argento-Virg.

Saxa per, et scopulos, et depressas *convalles*—Virg. Cum sociis, natoque, penatibus, et magnis *Dîs*—Virg.

Note 1. Some prosod ans assert that the proceleusmatic is found in Hexameter; as in

Hærent pärietibus scalæ, postesque sub ipsos-Virg.

And the anapest; as in

Flŭviōrum rex Eridanus, camposque per omnes—Virg. But in these, parietibus (pārjētībus) has been shown, under Synecphonesis, to consist but of four syllables, and flūvyōrum, but of three.

Note 2. Some assert that the tribrac, iambus, and tro-

chee, are sometimes found in it; as in

Olli serva datŭr, ŏpĕrum haud ignara Minervæ—Virg. Desine plura, puĕr ēt quod nunc instat agamus—Virg.

Ferte citi flammas, date $t\bar{e}l\tilde{u}$, scandite muros—Virg. But in the first two lines, the last syllable in $dat\bar{u}r$ and $pu\bar{e}r$, otherwise short, is made long by cæsura, so that in the first line the foot is, in reality, a dactyl, and in the second, a spondee; and in the third line, the a of $tel\bar{u}$ is considered long, on account of the two following consonants, although they be in a different word, so that the foot is a spondee. Those critics who deny that the initial s and another consonant possess the power of lengthening a final short syllable, would read et scandite, thus destroying the rapidity of thought, as indicated by the omission of the conjunction. Some would read ascendite, perhaps a less objectionable lection. It does not appear, that either alteration adds to the beauty or the harmony of the line.

Note 3. Lastly, some have asserted that a dactyl may be

found as the last foot; thus in

Inscritur vero ex fœtu nucis arbutus hōrrīdă

Et steriles platani -----

Nec tantum Rhodope mirantur et Ismarus Orphea-Virg.

But in the first example, the concluding foot is *horri*, a spondee, the *d* being joined by the figure Synapheia to the beginning of the following verse, after an elision of the *a*: thus, *horri* | *D'et steri* | &c. In the last example *Orphea* seems to be contracted into two syllables, forming a spondee.

OBSERVATIONS ON THE HEXAMETER.

I. 1. Every line of an hexameter, whatever may be the number of its syllables, occupies the same space of time in recitation; since equal time belongs to the spondee, though consisting but of two syllables, as to the dactyl, which consists of three. In consequence of this, lines containing many of the former may appear to drag heavily and slowly; and those in which the latter abound seem sometimes to have a hopping or a fluttering effect. It has, therefore, been thought, that the greatest harmony and beauty are likely to be produced by an alternation of the two: as,

Lūdčrě quæ věllěm călămó pērmīsšt ágresti—Virg. Pinguis ět īngrūtæ prěměrětūr cāsčus ūrbi—Virg.

2. If this alternation is not observed, those lines which most abound in dactyls, have the greater harmony; as

Tītǧrĕ, tū pätŭlæ rĕcŭbāns sūb tēgmĭnĕ fāgi—Virg. Ādspĭcĭs ūt vĕnĭānt ād cāndĭdā tēctā cŏlūmbæ—Ovid.

3. Those lines are the most pleasing in which are several *cæsuræ*, or feet not consisting of whole but of broken words: as

Rōmān|ōs rē|rūm dŏmĭn|ōs gēntēmquĕ tŏgātam—Virg.

Infānd|ūm, Rēgīnă, jŭ|bēs rĕnŏvārĕ dŏlōrem—Virg.

Infellix Pria mus für tim mandarat alendum-Virg.

4. But to prevent the palling monotony which would arise from any uniform alternation or practice, the position of the cæsuræ, and the arrangement of the feet, are to be varied; circumstances attended with little difficulty, when the endless variety in the length and quantity of Latin words is considered; as,

Vērtītur īntērēā cælum, ēt rūtī Ōcĕānō nox,
Involvēns ūmbrā māgnā tērrāmquē pŏlūmque,
Mūrmīdŏnūmquē dŏlōs: fūsī pēr mænĭā Teucri
Contīcūērē: sŏpōr fēssōs cōmplēctītūr ārtus—Virg.
In the following line, said to be intended, by broken and

unconnected feet, to express great passion, there is no syllabic cæsura till after the fourth foot:

Per connubia nostra, per inceptos Hymencos—Virg.
And Horace, to express the pain and trouble which he experienced in writing amidst the bustle and noise of the town, has a line without cesura, and which is little different from prose;

Præter cætera, Romæ mene poëmata censes Scribere posse, inter tot curas, totque labores?

The cæsura is beautiful when it takes place on the last syllable of a word which refers to the one terminating the verse; as

Tityre, tu patulæ | recubans sub tegmine fagi, Silvestrem tenui | musam meditaris avena—Virg. Nec tam præsentes | alibi cognoscere divos—Virg. Julius a magno | demissum nomen Iiilo—Virg.

Likewise, when it occurs on the fifth half-foot, the sense

being finished; as

the cæsura includes one of them; as

as,

Nos patriæ fines¹, | et dulcia linquimus arva—Virg.
Fluminibus salices, | crassisque paludibus alni—Virg.
After the first foot the neglect of the cæsura is no blemish,
provided that foot be a dactyl; as

Āmuŭt, atque dolis risit Cytherea repertis—Virg. Hōrrĭdā tempestas cœlum contraxit; et imbres—Hor.

Nor after a spondee is it much felt, more especially if it be an emphatic word; as

Tāndēm progreditur, magnā stipante catervā—Virg. Ācrēs esse viros, cum dura prælia gente—Virg.

The first and second feet are often connected by the trochaic cæsura; thus

Orba palrente suo quicumque volumina tractas—Ovid. Nor is the want of a syllabic caesura felt, after the second foot, if it be a spondee concluding with a monosyllable: as

Ah quoti|ēs pēr | saxa canum latratibus acta est—Ovid. The cæsura in the second foot, (observes Mr. Pickbourn,)

¹ In such instances, the beauty seems to me to consist chiefly in the coincidence of the sentential with the rhythmical pause-

although much more frequently neglected than that in the third, is scarcely ever omitted without the intervention of proper names, compound words, &c., or, in a few cases, by such long words as the following; crudeles, æquales, ambages, solenni, mugitus, &c. In almost all cases the word which interrupts the first cæsura is of sufficient length to comprehend likewise the second; as

Dixerat, Herculea bicolor cum populus umbra—Virg. Nos, tua progenies, cœli quibus annuis arcem—Virg. And, when the last syllable of such a word is elided, the second cæsura is often formed by est, et, &c. joined to it: as,

Quod facit, auratum est, et cuspide fulget acuta—Ovid.

Regna *Libernorum*, et fontem superare Timavi—Virg. This rule (he adds) admits very few exceptions; nor do I recollect a single instance, in Ovid or Virgil, where the second foot is a word constituting a spondee, unless it is formed by the preposition *intra*, or *inter*, followed by a pronoun: as

Maximus intra me deus est. Non magna relinquam-Ovid.

Talibus inter se dictis ad tecta subibant—Virg.

Vis ergo inter nos, quod possit uterque, vicissim—Virg.

But these can scarcely be considered as exceptions; for Quinctilian remarks, that the preposition and the case it governs were frequently pronounced with one accent, that is, as one word. They may, therefore, be considered as compound words, of sufficient length to comprehend the two first cæsuras.

The first pause is likewise frequently interrupted by the compound verb nescio, followed by quis, qua, quos, &c.: as

Sic ubi nescio quis Lydea de gente virorum—Ovid. And, in one instance, Virgil has suffered even the second

pause to be interrupted by it; as

Summa leves. Hinc nescio qua dulcedine lætæ, in which, perhaps, the Romans pronounced nescio qua with

one accent, as if one word.

Except where *inter*, *intra*, or *nescio*, occur in this manner, I do not recollect an instance in which Ovid suffers the first pause to be interrupted, without the occurrence of a word long enough to comprehend the first two cæsuras. Virgil is not quite so scrupulous in the observance of this rule. There are a few instances, where the second foot is a dactyl, in which it is neglected; as

Nec Saturnius hæc oculis pater aspicit æquis.

In like manner, whatever word interrupts the second casura is generally of sufficient length to include the third; as Jussa mori; quæ sortitus non pertulit ullos—Virg.

The third cæsura is not so often omitted as the first, by Virgil, but more frequently by Ovid; and it sometimes happens without the intervention of compound words; thus

Vina dabunt animos: et prima pocula pugna.

Non datur: occulta nec opinum perde sagitta—Ovid.

The place of this cæsura is often occupied, by words lengthened by declension or conjugation; thus

At pater omnipotens ingentia mænia cæli—Ovid. Lumina nam teneras arcebant vincula palmas—Virg.

Syllabic cesuras are seldom introduced after the fourth foot; they are generally unnecessary, and, when they occur, the verses are not harmonious; as

Omnes innocuæ; sed non puppis | tua, Tarchon—Virg. Vertitur interea cœlum, et ruit oceano | nox—Virg. In some cases, when formed by a monosyllable, they are

not ungraceful; as

Explorare labor: mihi jussa capessere fas est—Virg. Circumagi: quendam volo visere, non tibi notum—Hor. If the verse be spondaic, they are not objectionable; as

Persolvit, pendens e verticibūs | præruptis—Catul. It should be observed that when the verse is spondaic, the fourth foot ought generally to be a dactyl, otherwise the hemistich is rendered dull by the succession of three spondees.

The first pause seems to be interrupted nearly as often as the third. When there is but one cæsura in a line, it is generally the second; as

Ad mea perpetuum | deducite tempora carmen—Ovid.

Sometimes, however, it is the third; as

Cum sic unanimem alloquitur | malesana sororem—Virg. The trochaic cæsura has nearly the same metrical effect as the syllabic, and although another cæsura is introduced, the former seems to be sometimes the principal one; as

Ulla moram | fecēre, || neque Aonia Aganippe—Virg.

Et nova factaque nūper || habebunt verba fidem si—Hor.

When it is in the third foot, it is generally attended by two others, and the principal pause is in the fourth foot; as

Ponderibus | librātă | suis: || nec brachia longo—Ovid. It may agreeably take place in the fourth and fifth feet; as

Ergo desidiam quicumquë | vocāvit | amorem—Ovid. And it may be advantageously employed twice in other parts of the verse, provided that one or more feet of different structure intervene; as

Nec victoris | heri tetigit captīvă | cubile-Virg.

It frequently occurs in the fifth foot, and makes the verse end in a smooth and agreeable manner; as

Qui modo sævus eram, supplex ultroque rogavi—Ovid.

Exigat, et pulchra faciat te prolĕ parentem—Virg. But here, perhaps, it should not be considered as retaining its general nature of a pause. The same remark is applicable to the monosyllabic cæsura; for, when it is introduced in the fifth or sixth foot, it does not seem to retain any thing of the nature of a pause.

In lines, where different cæsuras are introduced, sometimes the principal one is formed by a monosyllable; thus,

Et conferre | manum, et || procurrere longius audent—

Virg.

Si pietas | ulla est || ad me | Philomela redito-Ovid.1

The intermediate or rhythmical pause seems to be sometimes removed from the middle to the end of the fourth foot, that foot being made to consist of a dactyl or spondee formed by the last syllables of a word.—The introduction of these spondaic and dactylic divisions of a line, at the end of the fourth foot, makes a pleasing variety, and occasions a great diversity not only in the modulation, but also in the length of the latter hemistich of a heroic verse. It may consist of the following varieties:—

Two feet and a short syllable.

Et mea sunt populo saltata | poëmata sæpe—Ovid.

Two feet and a long syllable.

Frigida pugnabant calidis | humentia siccis—Ovid.

Two feet and two short syllables.

Cara deûm soboles, magnum | Jovis incrementum—Ovid.

Three feet and a short syllable.

Confusæ sonus urbis, | et illætabile murmur—Virg.

Three feet and a long syllable.

Conticuere omnes, | intentique ora tenebant-Virg.

Three feet and two short syllables.

Ducite ab urbe domum | mea carmina, ducite Daphnim.

-Virg.

5. A great beauty consists in suiting the feet to the expression of the objects to be described. Thus the great labour and slowness of the Cyclops in lifting up their heavy

¹ For some of the preceding remarks on pauses, I am indebted to Mr. Pickbourn's ingenious Dissertation on this subject.

hammers are beautifully expressed in the following line by slow spondees;

Illi inter sese magna vi brachia tollunt-Virg.

The gravity of an old man in the following;

Olli sēdātō rēspōndīt corde Latinus—Virg.

The delay of Fabius, by which he saved the commonwealth, in the following;

Units qui nobis cunctūndo restituis rem—Virg. On the other hand, the swiftness or rapid flight of a pigeon is expressed by dactyls, as in the following;

Rādīt itēr liquidum, celeres neque commovet alas-Virg.

Or the flight of Turnus, as in the following;

Nī fūgā sūbsīdīō sūbēāt: fūgīt ōcyŏr Euro—Virg. And to express the fury of the winds and tempest, Virgil puts two dactyls at the beginning; as in

Quā dătă portă răunt-----

Īncŭbŭērĕ märi ----Īntŏnŭērĕ pŏli ----

6. The sound, too, of the words is often accommodated to the nature of the objects to be represented: thus in the two following lines, in the first of which the whistling of the winds is expressed by words in which the hissing s frequently occurs, as in the second the cries of the sailors and the crashing of the rigging are, by words in all of which will be found the jarring r.

Luctantes ventos, tempestatesque sonoras.

Insequitur clamorque virûm, stridorque rudentum-Virg.

7. It is also a beauty, as will again be noticed, when the sense does not finish with each line, but when one expression or more are thrown back to the following line, provided the stop be introduced at the close of the fourth or fifth, or, at the furthest, of the sixth line; as

Quid faciat lætas segetes; quo sidere terram Vertere, Mæcenas, ulmisque adjungere vites Conveniat; quæ cura boum, qui cultus habendo

Sit pecori, atque apibus quanta experientia parcis—Virg. A word of three long syllables, when it forms an image, or

paints an object, is often thrown back; as

But a monosyllable alone is not commonly thrown back,

nor a word of two syllables, unless it be to express something sad, difficult, grand, or frightful; as

Fundimur, et telo lumen terebramus acuto

II. On the contrary, in this kind of verse, those lines are reckoned rather harsh:

1. Which end in a monosyllable; as

Prælia rubrica picta aut carbone; velut si—Hor.

Cui pulchrum fuit in medios dormire dies, et—Hor. Except, first, when another monosyllable goes before it; as, Principibus placuisse viris, non ultima laus est—Hor.

Ne qua meis esto dictis mora. Juppiter hac stat—Virg. Except, secondly, when a particular beauty accrues to the

verse, from the use of a monosyllable¹; as

procumbit humi bos—Virg.

Isne tibi melius suadet, qui ut rem facias, rem Si possis recte: si non, quocumque modo rem?—Hor.

2. Those lines which end with several dissyllables; as Insano posuere; velut silvis, ubi passim—Hor.

Semper, ut inducar, blandos offers mihi vultus—Tibull.
3. Those which end in a word of more than three syllables: as

Augescunt aliæ gentes; aliæ minuuntur—Lucr. Quisquis luxuria, tristive superstitione—Hor.

Except, first, the verse be spondaic, as already noticed. Except, secondly, when the last word is a proper name; as

Amphion Dircæus in Actæo Aracyntho—Virg. Hirtacidæ ante omnes exit locus Hippocoontis—Virg. Quarum quæ formâ pulcherrima Deiopeiam—Virg.

Except, thirdly, when this position contributes to the expression of some particular passion, or there is any peculiar beauty in introducing such a word, at the end the line; as in

Per connubia nostra, per incceptos hymenæos—Virg. Seu mollis violæ, seu languentis hyacinthi—Virg.

The verse is usually concluded with a dissyllable, or a trisyllable, both, of course, emphatic on the penultimate.

1 Or when an anticlimax is intended, as in the well-known line of Horace,

Parturiunt montes, nascetur ridiculus mus, in which, one of the longest words is placed first, and a monosyllable, at the conclusion.

4. Thoselines in which there is no cæsura, or but few; as in Romæ mænia terruit impiger Hannibal armis—Enn. Has res ad te scriptas, Luci, misimus, Æli—Lucil. Sive quod Appula gens, seu quod Lucania bellum—Hor. Poste recumbite, vestraque pectora pellite tonsis—Enn. Sparsis hastis longe campus splendet et horret—Enn.

5. Those in which the elisions are too frequent, or grat-

ing to the ear; as

Primum nam inquiram, quid sit furere hoc; si erit in te

Illam ancillam ego amo ante alias, atque ipsi ero amandus.

6. Lastly, certain critics object to lines, (named Leonine, as some suppose from Leo, the name of a monk who brought them into vogue, or, according to others, from some imaginary analogy to the Lion's tail,) in which there is a rhyme, especially when it includes the vowel which precedes the cæsural syllable; as

Trajicit. I verbis virtutem illude superbis—Virg.

Si Trojæ fatis aliquid restare putatis—Ovid.

Ipse ego librorum video delicta meorum—Ovid.

And they reckon them less objectionable when there is an elision: as in

Æneam fundantem arces et tecta novantem—Virg.

Such rhymes, however, are not without their admirers, and considering what poets have used them, and how often, as will hereafter be noticed, that criticism is perhaps too hasty, which condemns them to unqualified reprobation. Some of the divisions of certain lines, however, in which rhyme is supposed to exist, may, perhaps, be regarded as merely homoteleutic, the rhyme being rendered imperfect, or counteracted, in a correct pronunciation of feet, by a diversity in the position of the syllabic emphasis. And where rhyme does really exist, the circumstance may, probably, be sometimes accidental, and not intended.

But, in regard to a thorough knowledge of the beauties and defects of hexameter verse; and of what position in a line any particular word of a certain quantity, and certain number of syllables, may properly and advantageously occupy, these are objects that can be attained only by practice, by a due regard to the rhythm, as connected with, or dependent upon, emphasis, and a minute attention to the works of such authors as have written in this kind of verse.

—I shall, therefore, conclude this sketch with a few remarks on the poetry of Virgil, as comprised under the fol-

lowing particulars.

1. The Varying of the Pause.—It has been already observed, that the common pause takes place in hexameter after the first five half-feet, that is, after the first syllable of the third foot; as in

Ante mare et tellus | et quod tegit omnia, coclum,

Unus erat toto | Naturæ vultus in orbe,

Quem dixêre Chaos | rudis indigestaque moles;

Nec quicquam, nisi pondus iners; | congestaque eodem Non bene junctarum | discordia semina rerum—Ovid.

These lines have the pause in the same place, the fourth excepted; and in this kind of measure is the *Metamorphosis* generally written. But it will be found, that Virgil endeavours as much as possible to avoid the common pause, as in the following lines:—

Quid facerem? | neque servitio | me exire licebat—Ecl.

Ferte simul | Faunique pedem | Dryadesque puella—Georg.

Inde toro | pater Æneas | sic orsus ab alto.

Hæc secum: | mene incepto | desistere victam?—Æn.

In a few instances he likewise omits the first cæsura; as Nec minus interea extremam | Saturnia bello—Æn.

There is, perhaps, not an instance in which Ovid omits both the first and second pause. In this consists the principal difference between the versification of Ovid and that of Virgil. The former scarcely ever omits the second pause; and hence the uniformity or general sameness so easily observable in his versification. The latter, on the contrary, by his frequent neglect of it, imparts greater variety to his numbers, and, sometimes also, greater strength to his expression.

2. The Inversion of the Phrase.—In this consists a material difference between the general style of prose and that of poetry; and it is one of those means which are artfully employed to create delay, suspense and interest. The fol-

lowing is an instance;

Arma virumque cano, Trojæ qui primus ab oris Italiam (fato profugus) Lavinaque venit

Here, by the inversion of the phrase, the whole matter, with the parenthesis fato profugus, precedes the principal verb, venit, the word littora excepted. Thus also;

Vix e conspectu Siculæ telluris in altum

Vela dabant ———

3. The adapting of the Sound to the Sense.—Few are ignorant of the beauty of Quadrupedante, &c., and Illi intersese, &c., but in Virgil such instances are innumerable.

How does the verse labour, when strong, heavy land is to be ploughed!

Ergo, age, terræ

Pingue solum, primis extemplo a mensibus anni

Fortes invertant tauri

How nimbly does it move, when the turning over of very light ground is represented!

---- Sub ipsum

Arcturum, tenui sat erit suspendere sulco.

How does the boat bound over the Po in the following words!

--- Levis innatat alnus

Inseritur vero ex fætu nucis arbutus horrida, in which the prevalence of the rough r is visible; nor can water itself be more liquid than the following, in almost every word of which, are both the trilling l and the hissing s;

Speluncisque lacus clausos, lucosque sonantes.

How soft and harmonious, and well adapted to the sense, does the prevalence of the letter a render the following lines!

Mollia luteolá pingit vaccinia caltha. Omnia sub magná labentia flumina terrú. Lanea dum niveû circumdatur infula vittâ.

4. The mixing of the Singular and Plural Number.—This is a great beauty, which is particularly attended to by Virgil; and but seldom observed by Ovid, or any other Roman writer in the time of Augustus.

The following are instances,

Curva tenent: ut molle siler, lentæque genistæ, Populus, et glauca canentia fronde salicta.

Pars autem posito surgunt de semine: ut altæ Castaneæ; nemorumque Jovi quæ maxima frondet Esculus, atque habitæ Graiis oracula quercus.

There is a beautiful passage of this kind in the Georgics; in which the thing to be done and the instrument with which

it is to be done are varied alternately;

Quod nisi et assiduis terram insectabere rastris,

Et sonitu terrebis aves, et ruris opaci

Falce premes umbras, votisque vocaveris imbrem.

Terram rastris; sonitu aves; falce umbras; and votis imbrem.

In Ovid nothing of this kind is to be found: thus, Ante mare et tellus et (quod tegit omnia) cœlum,

2 G

Unus erat toto naturæ vultus in orbe,

Quem dixere chaos; rudis indigestáque moles,

Nec quicquam nisi pondus iners.

In which are seven nouns in the singular, and not one in the plural, amongst them.

5. The uncommon Use of the Particles et and que.

Of this the following are instances:

— Multum ille *et* terris jactatus *et* alto;

Multa quoque et bello passus —

Et premere et laxas sciret dare jussus habenas. And more frequently in his most finished piece:

Quid tibi odorato referam sudantia ligno,

This manner of using the connecting particles gives strength to the verse, and, by retarding the sense, raises suspense and produces attention. For, in the last example, the sense is not concluded, till the rest of the line is read, vilenque faselum; while, had the poet written, si vero viciam seres, and the verse would have permitted it, the reader would have understood him without going any further, and the line would have been very flat, compared with what it now is 1.

This use of corresponding particles is particularly observable in Homer; as

Atridesque rex virorum, et nobilis Achilles.

Redempturusque filiam, ferensque infinitum pretium liberationis.—Clarke's Transl.

6. The Collocatio Verborum.

Of this the following is an example;

Vox quoque per lucos vulgo exaudita silentes

In which the *isolated* position of the heavy spondee has a striking effect, making the melancholy voice *groan*, as it were, *through the grove*.

7. The changing of the common Pronunciation; as Stridere apes utero, et ruptis effervere costis.

¹ It is observed, that enclitics are usually joined to the first word of a clause, unless sometimes when the first word is a monosyllabic preposition; as

Sub pedibusque videt nubes et sidera Daphnis—Virg. Instances, however, are not uncommon, in which this rule is not

observed. Horace furnishes one;

Flebili sponsæ juvenemve raptum-Lib, iv. od. 2.

The open genitives, as consilii, servitii, auxilii, &c. do not appear in the hexameters of Virgil, though evidently commodious to the verse, and though Ovid not long afterwards used these forms without reserve. In Horace, too, the forms consili and imperi occur, iii. 4, 65. iv. 15, 14.

8. Alliteration.—This is of several kinds; the *initial*, single, and double; sometimes treble, or more frequent; sometimes mixt, that is, both in the first letters of the words,

and in the following syllables.

The following are examples of the single alliteration.

Quid faciat lætas segetes, quo sidere terram Vertere, Mæcenas, ulmisque adjungere vites, Conveniat; quæ cura boum; qui cultus habendo.

Again;

----- Asia longe

Totaque thuriferis Panchaïa pinguis arenis.

Of the *treble*, and more frequent, initial *alliteration*, the following is an instance;

Et sola in siccà secum spatiatur arenâ.

The mixt alliteration will be found in the following;
Illas ducit amor trans Gargara, transque sonantem
Ascanium: superant montes, et flumina tranant.

In which two lines, the vowel a occurs fourteen times.

6. The Allusio Verborum, of which the following are instances;

Nec nocturna quidem carpentes pensa puella. Hoc metuens, molemque et montes insuper altos. Stat sonipes, ac fræna ferox spumantia mandit.

10. The Assonantia Syllabarum, or Rhyme. Of this there are in Virgil three different kinds.

First, the plain direct rhyme, which is of two kinds, single

and double.

Secondly, the intermediate or casual plain rhyme.

Thirdly, the scanning conclusive rhyme; so called because it can hardly be perceived by the generality of readers, till the verse is scanned.

The following are examples of the *single* direct *rhyme*, in which the lines are divided into two parts, to render it the

more easily perceived;

Totaque thuriferis Panchaïa pinguis arenis. Atque rotis summas Levibus perlabitur undas. O nimium cœlo

Et pelago confise sereno.

Of the plain direct double rhyme, which was so much in vogue among the monks, the following are instances;

Hic labor extremus, longarum

Hæc meta viarum.

Cornua velatarum

Obvertimus Antennarum.

Of the intermediate plain rhyme, the following are examples;

Imposuit, regemque dedit, qui fœdere certo.

Descendo, ac ducente deo flammam inter et hostes.

In this last, deo seems used for dea in speaking of a goddess, very probably for the sake of a rhyme.

Of the scanning conclusive rhyme, the following are in-

stances;

Sylvestrem tenui musam medi-tāris ă-venâ. Nudus in ignota Pali-nūre jă-cēbis ă-renâ.

Whence it appears that Virgil's poetry abounds in rhyme of one kind or other; and it will be seen that he generally concludes his strong, sounding, majestic sentences with a full rhyme, as in that beautiful line, which sums up the praises of Italy;

Totaque thuriferis Panchaïa pinguis arenis. Thus also at the conclusion of his best work; Confluere, et lentis uvam demittere remis.

To which may be added the last line of the episode to the same;

Tityre, te patulæ cecini sub tegmine fagi. In which the two hemistichs rhyme to each other.

NEGLECTED HEXAMETERS.

In the Epistles and Satires of Horace, are hexameters, which, from their studied negligence, and not having all the majesty belonging to heroics, have received this appellation. There are, however, great beauty and great simplicity in them; and they are admirable for the picture they contain of the foibles and passions of mankind; in which Horace does not always spare himself. Thus, writing to his steward, he says,

Rure ego viventem, tu dicis in urbe beatum: Cui placet alterius, sua nimirum est odio sors. Stultus uterque locum immeritum causatur inique.

In culpa est animus, qui se non effugit unquam.

There are several smaller verses, besides the pentameter,

which are formed from the heroic verse; such as most of the following, some of which consist of the beginning, and

some of the latter part of a hexameter.

1. The Archilochian Penthemimer, or Dimeter. Named from Archilochus its inventor; consisting of two daetyls, and one syllable, and, therefore, named Hypercatalectic;

Pūlvis et | ūmbra su|mus—Hor. 2. The Alemanian Dactylic Trimeter,

First used by Alcman; consisting of three successive dactyls, and a syllable over; therefore, Hypercatalectic.

Mūnera | lætiti amque de i—Virg. Nostra de us canet | hārmoni a—Prudent.

3. This verse likewise admits a spondee in the first, second, and third place; as

Unus čnim rērūm paterest. Hīc clau sīt mēm brīs ŭnimos.

Omne homi num genus în terris-Boet.

4. The Alcmanian Dactylic Tetrameter, Acatalectic. Admitting in the first, second, and third places, either a dactyl or spondee; in the fourth a dactyl only; as

Lūmini būsque pri or redi it vigor. Nīmbo sīsque po lūs stetit imbribus.

Dēsŭpër | în tēr rām nōx | fūnditŭr—Boët. Sölvitŭr | ācris hy ēms grātā vice—Hor.

5. The Alcmanian Tetrameter, Acatalectic, or, as it has

been named, the Spondaic Tetrameter.

Containing the last four feet of a Hexameter, in which, of course, the third is a dactyl, and the last foot a spondee;

Ibimus o soci comi tesque.

Sīc trīs tēs āf fātus à nīcos—Hor.

It sometimes admits a spondee instead of a dactyl, before the last foot; in which case, to prevent the line from being too prosaic, the second foot ought to be a dactyl;

Mēnso rēm cohi bent, Ar chūtā-Hor.

6, 7. The Pherecratian Trimeter, consisting of the last three feet of a hexameter, the first foot being a spondee; and the Adonic *dipodia*, (consisting of the last two,) will be hereafter described,

8 The Alemanian Tetrameter, Catalectic, Consisting of one long syllable, or two short syllables; and then a dactyl, or spondee; afterwards a dactyl; and lastly a spondee: thus,

Quī sē võlēt ēssē pö lēntem,
Äni mōs dŏmēt īllē fē rōces;
Nēc vīctā li bīdīnē cōlla
Fædīs sūb mīttāt hā bēnis—Boët.

9. The Alcmanian Tetrameter, Hypercatalectic. Consisting of a heroic penthemimer, *i. e.* having, in the first and second place, either a dactyl, or spondee, with a long syllable; and then an Adonic, that is, a dactyl and spondee; as

Heū quam præcipi tī mērsā prŏ fūndo,
Mēns hèbět, et prŏpri ā lūce rĕlīcta,
Tēndĭt in extēr nās rrĕ tĕ nēbras—Boët.

This verse seems to consist of two segments of the heroic hexameter, the latter half of the third foot, and the whole

of the fourth, being excluded; thus

Tityre tu patulæ---- tegmine fagi.

It is little different from the Asclepiadic, and has been termed the Alcmanian Choriambic. It may be scanned also as a pentameter deficient by a semifoot.

10. The Ithyphallic, or Priapeian, Tetrameter, Acatalectic; consisting of three dactyls and a Pyrrhic, or iambus; as

Qui sčrë re îngënit îm völët | ăgrum, Liberat | arva pri us fruti cibus, Falce ru bos | fili cemque re sĕcat—Boët.

This consists of the last four feet of the hexameter miurus; and has been termed the tetrameter miurus. The dactyl seems to have been preferred in the first three places, though the Spondee was admissible in the first and second.

11. The Bucolic Hexameter, having, in the fourth place,

a dactyl; as

Ab Jove principium, Musæ; Jövis omnia plena—Virg. Fortunatianus mentions, that Theocritus observed this rule in his Pastorals, and that Virgil often neglected it.

¹ Some antient grammarians call all divisions of a verse at the end of the fourth foot Bucolic cæsuras. Bede says, Bucolice tome ubi post quatuor pedes non aliquid remanet. These, observes Mr. Pickbourn, are formed, not only by spondaic and dactylic divisions, but in various other ways. Sometimes by a long or a short monosyllable, added to the third cæsura; as

Sive dolo, seu jam Trojæ sic fata ferebant—Virg. Parce precor nostrum laniatur in arbore corpus—Ovid.

In other cases, they are made by a Pyrrhic, and in a few instances by two short monosyllables following the third cæsura; as

Inferretque Deos Latio: genus unde Latinum—Virg. Vix oculos attollit humo: nec ut ante solebat—Ovid.

Priscian, when he enumerates the cæsuras in the first lines of the twelve books of the Æneid, takes no notice of these divisions of a verse at the end of the fourth foot: but Diomede mentions them, and seems to rank these with common cæsuras; for he says the following line of Virgil contains three cæsuras:

Talibus Ilianeus | cuncti | simul | ore fremebant.

Mr. Pick-

12. The Hexameter which is named Miurus or Teliambus, having as its last foot an iambus instead of a spondee; as Dirige odorisequos ad cæca cubilia cănēs—Liv. Andron.

13, 14. The two Alcaics will be noticed hereafter.

OF PENTAMETER.

Pentameter verse consists of five feet, of which the first two are indifferently dactyls or spondees; the third foot is always a spondee, (the first semifoot being almost invariably a final syllable, long, independently of cæsura), and the fourth and fifth anapests; thus

Nātū|ræ sĕqw|tūr sē|mǐnă quīs|quĕ sūæ—Propert.
Cārmĭw|būs vī vēs tēm| pŭs in ō|mnĕ mĕīs—Ovid.
Quā dĕdē|rīt pri|mūs ōs|cŭlŭ vīd tŏr ērīt—Ovid.
In the last line, there is a short syllable in the cæsura; a

very rare occurrence.

That this was the manner of scanning it among the antients, appears from the words of Quinctilian, "in pentametri medio spondeo,"—(Inst. ix. 4.) and "Anapæstus...

qui pentametri finis"—(Ibid.)

But, among the moderns, it is generally scanned differently. The verse is divided into two hemistichs, or penthemimers. In the first hemistich, are contained two dactyls or two spondees, or one of each indiscriminately, and a long syllable as a cæsura; in the latter hemistich, two dactyls, with another cæsura, or common syllable; thus

Natū ræ sequi tūr semină quisque să e. Cārmini būs vī vēs tēmpus in omne me is. Qui dede rīt pri mūs osculă vīctor e rit.

Mr. Pickbourn gives the following as the result of a patient examination of 3000 verses in Virgil and Ovid. In 1500 lines, taken from different parts of Virgil's works, he counted 811 Bucolic cæsuras, viz. 161 formed by spondees, consisting of the two last syllables of a word; 99 formed by dactyls, consisting of the last three syllables of a word; 179 formed by Pyrrhics; and 372 by monosyllables. In 1500 lines, taken from different parts of Ovid's Metamorph. he counted 802 Bucolic casuras, viz. 226 formed by spondees, 173 by dactyls, 192 by Pyrrhics, and 211 by monosyllables. He adds that 500 of these lines were taken from Virgil's Eclogues, where Bucolic cæsuras occur more frequently than they do in the Æneid. Had they been all taken, he says, from the latter poem, the numbers would not have exceeded, perhaps scarcely equalled, those in Ovid. Upon the whole, the principal difference is, that Ovid abounds more in Bucolic casuras formed by spondees and dactyls, and Virgil, in such as are formed by Pyrrhics and monosyllables.

A pentameter line subjoined to a hexameter constitutes an elegiac distich; so named from <code>Elegiac</code>, lamentatio, because it was first used in sad and plaintive compositions; and hence the two following lines of Ovid, which may likewise serve as a specimen of it;

Flebilis indignos, Elegeïa, solve capillos.

Ah nimis ex vero nunc tibi nomen erit!

The *Æolic Pentameter* consists of four dactyls preceded by a spondee, a trochee, or an iambus; as

Cordī | quāndo f ŭīsse sibī cănit ātthidă—Terent.

Edi-\-dit tŭbă tērribilēm sŏnĭtūm prŏcŭl—Terent. 'Ŏς āν-\-δρων Φρενας ευμαρεως ὑποδαμναται—Theocrit.

The twenty-ninth Idyl of Theocritus is in this metre;

- Οῖνος, ϖ Φιλε παι, λεγέται, και ἄλαθεα.

Sometimes the first foot was a dactyl.

OBSERVATIONS ON PENTAMETER AND ELEGIAC VERSE.

1. In Pentameter, the first hemistich ought to end with the entire word, that the cæsura belonging to the penthemimer may take place; for there is a blemish in a line wanting this cæsura; as in

Hæc quoque nostræ sententia mentis erat—Diomed.

2. An elision immediately after the penthemimer is harsh; as,

Mi misero eripuisti omnia nostra bona. Illum affligit odore, iste perit podagra.

Troja virum et virtutem omnium acerba cinis-Catull.

Which verses are likewise rendered more harsh by the synalophæ or ecthlipses in the other feet; and this harshness is still more obvious in the following line;

Quam modò qui me unum atque unicum amicum habuit—

Catull.

3. Neither hemistich should end in a monosyllable; as in O di, reddite mi hoc pro pietate mea.

Aut facere, hac a te dictaque factaque sunt-Catull.

But, yet, if another monosyllable goes before, or there is an elision in the preceding word, there is no blemish; as

Magna tamen spes est in bonitate dei. Præmia si studio consequar, ista sat est.

Invitis oculis litera lecta tua est—Ovid.

4. Pentameter is best concluded by a dissyllable; as are in general the verses of Ovid; but sometimes by a word of four or five syllables; as

Maxima de nihilo nascitur historia—Propert. Pomaque non notis legit ab arboribus—Tibull,

Lis est cum forma magna pudicitiæ—Ovid. Contactum nullis ante cupidinibus—Propert.

Seldom in a trisyllable; as

Et caput impositis pressit amor pedibus-Propert.

Quolibet ut saltem rure frui liccat-Propert.

5. The same objection that is made to Leonine verses, in hexameter, is made to them in pentameter: such are the following;

Quærebant flavos per nemus omne favos.

Hoc, mihi quid prodest, si tibi, lector, obest-Ovid.

If, however, only the last syllables of the two hemistichs rhyme to each other, this may be conducive to the elegance and harmony of the verse; as

Huc ades, et nitidas casside solve comas—Ovid.

Flumineo celeres dissipat ore canes—Ovid.

Fluminis ad liquidas forte sedemus aquas-Buchan.

In the observations on Hexameter, it has been shown that Virgil abounds in this kind of rhyme, and in other kinds. The following are additional instances; and in these, likewise, there are only two syllables which rhyme to each other.

Quamvis multa meis exiret victima septis-Virg.

Primus Idumæas referam tibi, Mantua, palmas—Virg.

Dum petit infirmis nimium sublimia pennis. Icarus Icariis nomina fecit aquis—Ovid.

6. In elegiac poetry, the hexameters ought to flow more

slowly, than when they are used alone.

7. In this verse, also, every distich generally terminates a sentence, or at least ends with a colon. And it seldom happens, (nor should it be imitated,) that it is concluded in such a way that one word of the same member of a sentence belongs to the preceding distich, and the other to the following.

OBSERVATIONS ON THE OVIDIAN DISTICH 1.

(I.) SCANSION AND STRUCTURE.

1. Four verses out of five, or nearly so, commence with a dactyl.

2. When the sense of the *first* line overflows by a single word into the *second*, that word almost always forms a dactyl, or a trochee.

Obsequio tranantur aquæ; nec vincere possis Flumina, si contra quam rapit unda, nates.

1 Class, Journ. vol. xxii. p. 221.

Nunc quoque detecti referunt monumenta vetusti Moris, et antiquas testificantur opes.

The exception to this rule is very rare, and takes place

perhaps only with a verb.

Inde duæ pariter, visu mirabile, palmæ Surgunt: ex illis altera major erat.

3. A molossus initial is preferred to a spondee, cæteris paribus.

4. The Pentameter is never formed thus: (Monkish epi-

taph.)

Vile cadaver | sum || tuque cadaver eris.

(II.)

5. The long verse, in structure, seldom deviates from these models.

Tityre, tu patulæ || recubans sub tegmine | fagi. Sylvestrem tenui || musam meditaris | avena. Formosam resonare | doces || Amaryllida | sylvas.

6. The trisyllabic ending is avoided in the short line, as the quadrisyllabic is in the long. The short line on some very rare occasions ends with a quadrisyllabic word.

Quem legis, ut noris, accipe, Posteritas. Me sciat in media vivere barbarie. Quicquid et in tota nascitur Anticyra.

7. The sense does not overflow from one into another distich, unless under circumstances like the following.

Languor, et immodici nullo sub vindice somni, Aleaque, et multo tempora quassa mero, Eripiunt omnes animo sine vulnere nervos: Adfluit incautis insidiosus amor.

(III.) PROSODY.

8. A short vowel in one word preceding sc, sp, sq, st, in another, very rarely forms a short syllable 1.

In words like Scamander, Sciurus, Smaragdus, authority

and necessity are said to consecrate the usage.

9. The casural lengthening of a short syllable in any place of the verse is very uncommon.

Ut rediit animus, tenues a pectore vestes, &c.

10. M final and final short vowels are rarely cut off, even in dissyllabic words: much less in monosyllables, and with long vowels.

¹ See, however, page 345.

11. The most usual forms occur in fine pentametri, such as the following:

... via est. ... solo est. ... ubi es? ... meum est.

12. Of the apostrophe so placed, the following line (otherwise, objectionable) gives an extraordinary instance. Heroid. x. 86. Ed. Burman.

Quis scit, an hæc sævas tigridas insula habet?

13. Consilii, imperii, &c. stand as quadrisyllables in Ovid. To this head, perhaps, of convenience in versifying, may be referred the position of *que* in the short line; the peculiarity of *evolvisse* and *persolvenda*, as forming words of five syllables; and the frequent use of *implicuisse*, &c., where *implicare*, &c. else would naturally occur.

14. The shortening of the O final is very rare, and in a very few words only admitted; puto when parenthetic, and

nescio quem, &c., are not uncommon instances.

(IV.) RELATIVE POSITION OF WORDS.

15. The words by which the pentameter is usually concluded, are nouns, and verbs, the verb substantive very

much, and pronouns possessive.

16. Of adjectives and adverbs in fine pentametri the instances being rare and particular are easily remarked: these it is not safe to imitate, unless in cases justified by identity or very close similitude.

17. Instances like these with sum, facio, and other verbs,

are readily distinguished.

Quæ tantum lanas non sinat esse rudes. Hoc faciet positæ te mihi, terra, levem.

18. The participle in fine pentametri, as in the fictitious verse below, is not legitimate.

Et lætus vivit, rura paterna colens.

19. While the following instances, with a few others, form no real exception to the rule.

Nunc tibi sum pauper, nunc tibi visa nocens. Dicere non norunt, quid ferat hora sequens.

On the Position of the Adjective.

20. Generally, perhaps, the adjective precedes the noun, Except,—a. Where it is the longer word of the two.

b. Where it has a very emphatic or decisive meaning in the sentence.

c. Where some word belongs to it in go-

vernment.

d. Where one adjective is coupled to another.

The following collocations are legitimate, and may be imitated with safety.

A. Si mea materiæ | respondet Musa | jocosæ.

B. Ruperat et duram | vomer aduncus | humum.

C. Inque sinu natos | pignora chara | ferunt.

D. Prima vocas tardos | ad juga panda | boves.

E. (any where perhaps but in fine pentametri.)

Qui mihi | Livor edax | ignavos objicis annos.

Quæ que nec | hoste fero | nec nive, terra, cares.

21. Other collocations equally legitimate occur, which it may not be quite so easy to class and define. These the Scholar will note as he meets with them, remembering carefully to distinguish where the noun and the adjective go disjunctively as in A, and where conjunctively as in B, C, D, and E.

22. The noun in the long line is seldom followed by its adjective in the short, unless in a few cases very peculiar,

like these.

Protinus adspicies venienti nocte Coronam
Gnossida: Theseo crimine facta Dea est.
Dira viro facies; vires pro corpore; corpus
Grande: pater monstri Mulciber hujus erat.
Nos quoque templa juvant, quamvis antiqua probemus,
Aurea: majestas convenit ista Deo.

OF THE ASCLEPIADIC (A CHORIAMBIC).

This verse, invented by the poet Asclepiades, consists of four feet, a spondee, two choriambi, and a Pyrrhic (or, considering the last syllable of the verse as long, an iambus); thus

Mace nas atavis | edite re gibus.

But it is likewise scanned differently. Thus, in the first place some put a spondee, in the second a dactyl, with a cæsura or long syllable, and in the third and fourth, a dactyl; as

Macce nās ata vis | ēdite | rēgibus.

It may be turned into a pentameter, by adding a syllable to the second hemistich; thus

 \overline{O} et præsidium, | dulcë dëcusquë mëum. The cæsura takes place at the end of the first choriambus.

Note 1. Very rarely the first foot was a dactyl; as $\widetilde{E}ff\acute{u}g\breve{\imath}|um$, $\widetilde{\epsilon}t$ mise \widetilde{ros} | $lib\check{\epsilon}r\breve{\alpha}$ | $m\widetilde{o}rs$ $v\check{\epsilon}h\check{\imath}t$ —Seneca.

Note 2. Single feet are elegantly composed of complete words; as

Quassās, līndocilis pauperiem păti—Hor. Magnum pauperies opprobrium, jubet—Hor.

Note 3. The first choriambus, or the cæsura, falls inelegantly on the middle of a word; as

Non în cendiă Carth aginis îm piæ-Hor.

Unless there be an ecthlipsis or synalæpha; as

Exē gī monumēn tum ærē pērēn nius—Hor. Audī tām moderē re ārboribūs fidem—Hor.

Or, the word be a compound; as

Dum fla grantia de torquet ad os cula-Hor.

But such lines are somewhat harsh, and not rashly to be imitated.

There are likewise the following varieties in choriambic verse.

1. The Aristophanian Choriambic Dimeter, Acatalectic, consisting of a choriambus, and a Bacchic or an amphibrac; as

Lydia dic | per omnes-Hor.

2. The Alcaic Pentameter, Acatalectic, consisting of a spondee, three choriambi, and a Pyrrhic; as

Seu plū | res hiemes | seu tribūit | Jūpiter ūl timam—Hor.

3. The Alcaic Epichoriambic Tetrameter, Acatalectic, consisting of the second epitrit, (a choree and a spondee) two choriambi, and a Bacchic; as

Tē Džos o ro Sybarin | cur properes | amando—Hor.

OF THE GLYCONIC.

4. The Glyconic (so named from its inventor Glyco or Glycon) consists of three feet, a spondee, a choriambus, and a Pyrrhic; as

Mēns rē gnum bona pos sidet-Senec.

Others scan it by a spondee, and two dactyls; thus

Mēns rē gnūm bonă | possidet.

Note. The first foot is sometimes an iambus or a trochee; as $P\tilde{u}\tilde{e}l_ila$ $\tilde{e}t$ $p\tilde{u}\tilde{e}ri$ $\tilde{i}n|t\tilde{e}gri$ —Catul.

Māgnā progenies Jovis—Catul.

Horace has but once admitted the trochee;

Ignis | Iliacas domos—Od. i. 15, 36. To which may, perhaps, be added the twenty-fourth line of the same ode, which, according to old editions, runs thus:

Teucer | et Sthenelus sciens,

instead of Teucerque, et &c. or, probably,

Teucer, te Sthenelus &c.

5. See the *Pherceratic*, which may be classed either with Choriambics or Dactylics.

OF THE SAPPHIC AND ADONIC.

The Sapphic, so named from the poetess Sappho, consists of five feet; the first a trochee, the second a spondee, the third a dactyl, and the fourth and fifth trochees. Sappho accompanied every three of these verses with an Adonic (a measure used in lamenting the fate of Adonis) which consists of a dactyl and a spondee; and in this she has been imitated by Horace, Catullus and others, but not by Seneca, who, in the choruses to his tragedies, often gives a considerable number of successive Sapphics without any Adonic. The Sapphic is a Trochaic pentameter, Acatalectic; the Adonic, a Dactylic dimeter.

Īntě gēr vī tæ scělě rīsquě pūrus, Non ě gēt Mau rī jăcu līs něc ārcu, Nēc vě nēnā tīs grăvi dā să gīttis,

Fūsce, pha rētrā. —Hor.

Boëthius has many of these last successively; as

Gaudia pelle; Nubila mens est,
Pelle timorem: Vinctaque frænis,
Spemque fugato; Hæc ubi regnant.

Nec dolor adsit. L. 1. de Con. Phil.

Note 1. The cæsura penthemimeris gives beauty to Sapphic verse; for those lines which are without it do not flow very harmoniously; as

Concines majore poëta plectro.

Phæbe silvarumque potens Diana-Hor.

Note 2. A trochee, or, it is said, a dactyl, is sometimes found in the second place; as

Pauca | nunci | ate meæ puellæ—Catull.

Quæque ad | Hēspěri as jacet ora metas—Senec.

Sumere | īnnume | ras solitum figuras—Senec.

unless the two last words are read as trisyllables. But these liberties should be sparingly used.

Note 3. These verses are sometimes found redundant, (*Hypermetri*); but, in this case, the last vowel is elided, because the following verse begins with a vowel; as

Plorat, et vires, animumque, moresque Aureos educit in astra, nigroque Invidet Orco—Hor.

Note 4. Those lines have been sometimes considered as rather harsh, in which the first syllable of a word belongs to the preceding verse, and the remainder to the following; as

Grosphe, non gemmis, neque purpurà ve--nale, nec auro.

Also; Labitur ripâ, Jove non probante, u--xorius annis—Hor.

In the composition, however, of the Sapphic stanza, it has been observed, that a word may be divided so that the former part of it shall close the third line, and the remainder shall form the beginning of the fourth, or Adonic. The ancient poets afford no instance of such a division at the termination of the first, second, or fourth verse 1. Thus

Gallicum Rhenum, horribilesque ulti--mosque Britannos—Catull.

Labitur ripâ, &c.—Hor. ex edit. Bentl.

Grosphe, non gemmis, &c.—Hor. ex ed. Bentl.

There are two other instances, which are of a different class:

Thracio bacchante magis sub inter--lunia vento—Hor. i. 25, 11. Pendulum zonâ bene te secutâ e--lidere collum—Hor. iii. 27, 59.

In these, the prepositions are allowably detached from the words, as they often are in other metres; a circumstance which has been noticed by Bentley, and subsequently by Dawes, in his *Misc. Critic.* In the last example, the common reading is

———— te secuta Lædere collum.

This divisio vocis in fine versus does not occur in the Sapphics of Seneca, Statius, Ausonius, Prudentius, Sidonius Apollinaris, or Boëthius; and it is admitted, as already noticed, only at the close of the third and beginning of the fourth, by Catullus and Horace. The elision of the final vowel is observable in the former, at the end of the third verse; and, in the latter, at the end of the first², second, and third. See Note 3, and Synapheia.

¹ Month. Rev. Jan. 1798.

² But this elision appears to me to receive little confirmation from the example,

Pindarum quisquis studet æmulari,

since, if the word *Iule* be pronounced as a dissyllable, which it may be, the two lines will remain unconnected in their metre. The observation with respect to the elisions, appears to be not very important. Final elisions have been generally avoided; for the ancients paid particular attention to the metre and rhythm

A continuation of sense from stanza to stanza, if not occurring frequently, is permitted; but it is deemed harsh and awkward to open a new sentence with the Adonic verse, of which the first and natural use is to close the metre with an agreeable rest. (See Class. Journ. xviii. 378.) In all the odes of Horace, in this metre, one only, a light composition, even seems to yield any pretence for such a disjunction.

Est mihi nonum superantis annum Plenus Albani cadus; est in horto Phylli, nectendis apium coronis;

Est hederæ vis [in horto] Multa, quâ crines religata fulges.

Ridet argento domus: &c. Lib. iv. 11.

Catullus never offends against this rule. It is possible, indeed, that the third Sapphic line, and the Adonic, might have been considered as forming one verse; Metrum asynarteton, ex Epichoriambico trimetro catalectico, et Choriambico penthemimeri.

OF THE PHALEUCIAN.

The Phaleucian, or, rather, Phalecian verse, so named from the inventor, Phalecus, (Φάλαικος) consists of five feet; the first, a spondee, the second, a dactyl, and the other three, trochees; thus

Quod sīs | ēssē ve | līs nī | hīlquē | mālis. Sūmmām | nēc mētā as dī em, nec | optes—Mart.

Note 1. This kind of verse neither rejects nor requires a casura.

Note 2. Instead of a spondee as the first foot, Catullus sometimes uses a trochee, or an iambus; a liberty seldom taken by posterior poets.

towards the close of a line. Whether they occur in the first, or the second, or the third line, the circumstance may have been purely accidental, and not determined by any predilection for the particular line. Such elisions occur in other metres in Greek and Latin poetry; and for their occurrence, I am not aware that any principle has been, or can be assigned, as founded on the particular nature of the line, or of the versification. The only lines, in this stanza, in which there appears to be a well marked peculiarity, are the third and fourth; and even in these, the peculiarity is removed, by considering them as constituting one continuous verse. An elision at the end of the Adonic would be obviously improper.—It may not be improper to add here, as a general rule applicable to Lyrical poetry, that, if a verse ends in a short vowel, the following verse should not begin with a vowel, unless where the sense ends with the end of the line.

Grāti as tibi maximas Catullus

Agīt, pessimus omnium poëta.

Note 3. The same poet has also admitted a spondee, instead of a dactyl, as the second foot; thus

Ora | mūs sī | forte non molestum est.

Femel las om nes, amice, prendi.

But this is not to be imitated.

The Phaleucian is sometimes named *Hendecasyllabic*, or verse consisting of eleven syllables; but that name does not exclusively belong to it, since the greater dactylic Alcaïc, (to be hereafter noticed,) and the Sapphic, contain the same number. The following is an instance of the latter converted into the Phaleucian;

Sapphic. Non ĕ|gēt Mau|rī jăcŭ|līs nĕc | ārcu.

Phaleuc. Non Mau|rī jăcŭ|līs ĕ|gēt nĕc | ārcu.

Alcaïc. Sūmmūm | nĕc ōp|tēs || nēc mĕtŭās | dĭem.

Sapph. Nēc dĭ ēm sūm|mūm mĕtŭ|ās, nĕc | ōptes.

OF THE PHERECRATIC.

The Pherecratic verse, invented by Pherecrates of Athens, consists of what may be the three last feet of an hexameter; viz. in the first place, of a spondee, in the second, a dactyl, and in the third, a spondee; thus

Nīgrīs | æquŏră | vēntis—Hor.

Note 1. Catullus sometimes admits a trochee, or an iambus, into the first place; as

Prode as nova nupta. Pŭel læque canamus.

Boethius sometimes an anapest; as

Simili | surgit ab ortu.

The Pherecratic verse is generally classed as a Dactylic trimeter. It may also be considered as a Choriambic trimeter, catalectic (or a Glyconic deprived of its last syllable), consisting generally of a spondee in the first foot, a choriambus, and a catalectic syllable.

OF THE IAMBIC.

The two most common kinds of Iambic verse, (so named from the foot Iambus,) are the *Dimeter* and *Trimeter*. The *Dimeter* Iambic consists of four feet, the *Trimeter*, of six. They were so named, because, in scanning them, the Greeks joined two feet together, making what they called *measures*; of which the former contained two, and the latter, three. But the Latins, from the number of the feet, called the one *Quaternarius*, and the other, *Senarius*.

2 H

The pure iambic admits no other foot than the iambus; thus.

Measures. 3

Dimet. Inār sit a stuō | siūs. | Trimet. Suīs et ī psa Ro ma vī ribus ruit -Hor.

But in order to render composition less difficult, and, by producing delay, to give the verses more gravity and dignity, spondees were admitted into the odd places, that is, into the first, third, and fifth; thus

Forti seque mur pe ctore Trimet. Pārs sā nītā tīs vēl te sā nārī f ŭit—Seneca.

The former of these makes two third epitrits; and the

latter, three.

And lastly, instead of an iambus and spondee, certain feet equal to them in quantity were admitted; that is, in the odd places, an anapest, a dactyl, and sometimes a tribrac; and also in the even places, (except the last, which always requires an iambus,) a tribrac; thus

Cānidi | a trāc|tāvīt | dăpēs. | Păvidum que lepo r' aut ad venām lăqueo gruem Hor.

Note 1. From these is excepted the Scazon, of which by

and by.

Note 2. The Latin comic poets admit also into the even places those feet which others employ only in the odd places; except the last, which is always an iambus. The fables of Phædrus are constructed with the same liberty, and are generally written in the following manner;

Amīt tīt meri to propri um, qui ali enum ap petit.

Facit | paren tes boni tas non | neces sitas.

Horace has ten Epodes consisting of the trimeter and dimeter iambic alternately; thus

> Beatus ille qui procul negotiis, Ut prisca gens mortalium, &c.

But in hymns, we find the strophe consisting of dimeters only. The cæsura was generally after the two first feet of trimeters; and there was probably a short pause at the end of each measure.

The following are varieties of the Iambic.

1. The Iambic Monometer, or Binarius, consisting of two Iambuses; as

Cave | malum.
Tene | bonum.

2. The Archilochian Trimeter, Catalectic, which in the first place has an iambus or spondee, in the second an iambus, in the third a spondee, in the fourth and fifth an iambus, with a common syllable; thus

1 2 3 4 5

Trăhūnt que sic cas ma chinæ cări nas

Nec prā ta ca nis at bicant prui nis. Hor.

3. The Archilochian Trimeter, Catalectic, differing from the last in this, that it admits a spondee or iambus in the third place; as

1 2 3 4 5 $Mea \mid reni \mid d \in t$ $\bar{i} \mid l \mid domo \mid l \mid acu \mid nar$.

Premunt | colu mnās ūl timā | reci sas-Hor.

4. The Galliambic Trimeter, (so named from the Galli or priests of Cybele,) Acatalectic, consisting of six feet, of which the first is an anapest, the second and third an iambus, the fourth and fifth a dactyl, and the sixth an anapest; as

1 2 3 4 5 6

Săper al tă vē ctus Āltys cele rī răte | măria. Phrygium | nemus | cita to cupi de pede | tetigit,

Adiit que opa ca sil vis redi mita lo ca Dea-Catull.

Note. This verse has always an iambus in the third place, in the fifth always a dactyl, and in the sixth always an anapest. But in the second it admits an anapest, and with greater propriety, a tribrac, and in the fourth the dactyl may be changed to a spondee. It sometimes admits, though rarely, other feet; as in the first place, a spondee, a cretic, and a proceleusmatic; in the second, a spondee, and its equivalent, a dactyl; in the fourth, an iambus. The more usual feet of this uncommon metre are here stated. For others, see the Atys of Catullus. The line seems to consist of two Anacreontics, the final syllable of the last being cut off, and the cæsura uniformly taking place at the end of the first dimeter. It may, thus, be divided, as follows, the third foot of both members being an iambus, and the penultimate foot generally a tribrac; 2 H 2

Super āl tā vēc tus ā tūs | cēlērī rātē mā rīā.

Jām jām | dŏlēt | quŏd ē gī || jām jām quĕ pæ nĭtēt—Catull.

5. The Saturnian Trimeter, Hypercatalectic, which has a spondee in the fourth place, and in the other five, iambuses,

Dăbunt | mălum | Metellli | Næ vio | Poë tæ-Ter. Maur.

with a syllable remaining at the end; as

6. The Hipponactic Tetrameter, Catalectic, consisting of seven iambuses, and a long syllable, and admitting sometimes a spondee into the odd places; as 5 Et în solen ter æ stues | velut | minu tă ma gno, Depren sana vis in mari | vesa | nien te ven to-Catull. 7. The Tetrameter or Octonarius, Acatalectic, which is also named Quadratus, consisting of eight feet, of which the last is always an iambus; in the other even places are iambuses or tribracs; in the odd places iambuses or spondees, or their respective equivalents, tribracs, anapests, or dactyls; as 3 Adest | celer | phase | lus il | le, quem | vide | tis, hos | pites-Ter. Maur. Sane pol îl la te mulen ta est muli er et temera ria—Ter. Comic writers, who generally use this kind of verse, sometimes admit into the even places such feet as are generally used in the odd places, and vice versa; the last place excepted, in which there is always an iambus; thus Pecu|niam in | loco | neglige|re ma|ximum in|terdum est|lucrum-Ter. Egojam trānsā ctâ re convor tam me domum cum obso nio-Ter. Propter suamim potentiam | se sem per cre dunt ne gligi-Ter. Similar changes take place in the trimeters; as Si id est | pēccā tūm, pēc cātum īm prūdēn tiâ est—Ter. Also in the catalectic tetrameters: as Hemistoc | vērbo ani mus mî rediit, et cu ra ex cor de exces sit-Ter. The Tetrameter, Catalectic, appears to be the Octonarius deprived of its final syllable. The pure Iambic was seldom used; and, in both, the same variations were admissible as in the Trimeter, the comic writers here also taking similar liberties; thus Atque îst hæc ĕŭ dēm quæ mihi dix ti tū të dī cās muli erī-Ter.

mülier aves

Non pos sum săti narra re quos ludos præbue ris

ptě cul pa făci mus ut mălos expedi at

östen dit

ōs citan tes... Catull.

ēs sē ... Ter.

in tus ... Ter.

Quum de | viā

8. See the Archilochian Iambic Dimeter, Hypercatalectic, in the Carmen Horatianum.

OF THE SCAZON OR CHOLIAMBUS.

9. The Scazon or Choliambus (claudicant, or lame iambic, so named, because in it the cadence is inverted, or maimed, as it were, by the change of feet in the last two places,) consists of six feet; of which the fifth foot is always an iambus, and the sixth a spondee, the others being the same as in the iambic trimeter; thus

1 2 3 4 5 6
Misēr Cătūl le dē sinās inē ptīrē.
Fūlsē re quon dām cān didī tibī solēs—Cat.
Cŭr in theā trūm, Cătŏ sevē re vē nīstī?
Ān idē o tān tūm vē nērās ut ēx īrēs? Mart.

This verse is an Iambic Trimeter, Acatalectic, with a spondee instead of an iambus for the sixth foot.

OF THE ANACREONTIC.

10. The Anacreontic verse, so named from Anacreon the famous lyric poet, is nothing else but the iambic dimeter, catalectic. The first foot is an iambus, often also a spondee, or anapest, and sometimes a tribrac, or a cretic; the second and third are iambuses, with an additional syllable at the end; thus

1 2 3

Adēs | pătēr | süprē me,
Quem nē mŏ vī dĭt ūn quam—Prudent.
Hăbĕt ō mnĭs hōc | vŏlū ptas,
Stĭmūlīs | ăgīt | fŭrēn tes—Boët.
'Οποσα Φερουσιν ύλαι.

Μέλπομαι ρόδον θέζειον-Anacreon.

A spondee was scarcely admissible in the third place, at least in Latin.

OF THE TROCHAÏC.

The Trochaïc verse, so named from the foot, admits in the odd places a trochee, or a tribrac; but in the last place a trochee only: in the even places, besides the trochee and tribrac, it admits also a spondee, a dactyl, an anapest, and, but seldom, a proceleusmatic. It rejects the iambus, as the iambic does the trochee. The tribrac very rarely occurs in the sixth place, and never in the seventh, except in a few instances in comedy. The dactyl rarely appears in the fourth. The pure Trochaïc seldom occurs.

The most common Trochaïc verse is the Tetrameter or

Octonarius, Catalectic; consisting of seven feet, with a half foot, or syllable remaining; thus

Sõlŭs aut rēx aut pö ētā non quot annīs nāsci tur-Flor.vet.Poët.

Note 1. Although Iambics and Trochaïcs seem opposite
in their nature, yet there is a great affinity between them.
For, if a syllable be prefixed to the beginning of a pure trochaïc verse, it becomes a pure iambic; and, on the contrary,
if the syllable be taken away from the beginning of the
iambic, it makes the verse trochaïc. Indeed, some have
referred such verses to iambics, calling them acephalous iambics.

Note 2. In the Trochaïc Tetrameter, the cæsura ought to be altogether avoided after the fourth foot, which divides the verse into two hemistichs; as in the ecclesiastical hymn, on the passion of our Lord;

Pāngĕ, | līnguă, | glōrĭ|ōsī || laurĕ|ām cērˈtāmǐ nis, Et super crucis trophæo || dic triumphum nobilem : Qualiter, Redemptor orbis || immolatus vicerit.

It is thus written in the Breviary, in six lines. The first hemistich is a trochaïc dimeter; and the second a trochaïc

dimeter, catalectic.

Note 3. It is evident that the dactyl in iambics, and the anapest in trochaïcs, must have a considerable influence in checking the poetic rhythm of the line, and in imparting to it a prose cadence, not unbecoming in comedy and other loose compositions, the sermoni propiora. The Trochaïc Tetrameter Catalectic appears to be the same as the Iambic Octonarius Acatalectic without the first syllable, the same variations being admitted in the even places of the trochaïc, as in the odd of the iambic.

Note 4. The comic writers use, in trochaïc verse, the same liberties in regard to the choice of feet, as in iambics; putting promiscuously in the odd places such feet as others admit only in the even places, the seventh footalone excepted.

The following are the varieties in the construction of Tro-

chaïcs

1. The Pancratic Trochaïc Monometer, Hypercatalectic, consisting of two trochees, and one syllable; as,

Nulla | jam fi|des—Scalig.

2. The Ithyphallic Dimeter, Brachycatalectic, consisting of three trochees; as

1 2 3

Huc a des Ly &e-Scalig.

3. The Euripidean Dimeter, Catalectic, consisting of three trochees, (in the second place sometimes a spondee or dactyl, and, I believe, an anapest,) with an additional syllable; as,

1 2 3

Non e bur ne que aure um-Hor.

Vota supplex offe ram—Buchan. Ducat intrepi dam ra tem—Senec.

4. The Alemanic Dimeter, Acatalectic, consisting of four trochees; and admitting in the second place a spondee, or, its equivalents in quantity, a dactyl and anapest; as

Incolæ ter rarum, ab ortu

Solis ulti mum ad cu bile—Buchan. Ps. 66.

Eja Domino jubi late— Buch. Consci os sceteris ne fandi—Buch.

5. The Anacreontic Dimeter, Acatalectic, having in the first place a Pyrrhic, in the other three, trochees; as,

1 2 3 4

Agë | cuncta | nupti ali Rëdi mita | vere | tellus

Cele bra to ros he riles-Claudian.

Here it may be remarked, that the initial pyrrhic well accords with what may be supposed to be the rhythm of the line, the emphasis appearing to lie on the odd syllables. A similar remark may, perhaps, be applicable in many other cases.

6. The Hipponactic Tetrameter, Acatalectic, called also Quadratus, consisting of eight trochees, and admitting in the even places also a spondee, and its equivalents, an anapest, a dactyl, and sometimes a proceleusmatic; and, in the odd places, a tribrac; as

Appe tente | vere | prīmō | cum te ner vi rescit annus, Vini torque falce | tōnsōs | viti bus ma ritat | ulmos--Scal.

The comic writers, using the same license as in the catalectic tetrameters, introduce almost all the above-mentioned feet in all the places; as

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8

Hăng te hinc ablisse: ētļvītām tuam tū-tāndam ātī is dē dīsse?

Altīos tuam rēm credi dīstī māgī quam tēte, ānī mādvēr sūros?

Nam ūt ūt ērānt ātī a ūlt cērtēļguæ nūnc tībī do miēst, con sūlēres-Ter.

Note. In the first and second verse tuam is a

7. 8. See the Sapphic, which is a Trochaïc pentameter, acatalectic; and the Phaleucian, also a Trochaïc pentameter, acatalectic.

OF THE ANAPESTIC.

Anapestic verse is so named, because, in any place of it, an anapest may be used. Instead of an anapest, however, it admits a spondee, or dactyl, feet of equivalent quantity. And this so often occurs, that there is frequently not one anapest in a line termed Anapestic.

There are various kinds of it. The pure Anapestic con-

sists of four feet, all anapests; thus

Phăretræ que graves | dăte sæ vă fero-Seneca.

But this kind is seldom found; the sweetest and most common being that denominated the tetrameter acatalectic, which is named Aristophanian, or Pindaric, consisting of four feet, generally dactyls, or spondees, with a mixture of anapests, in such a manner, however, that a dactyl is very seldom used in the second, or fourth place, at least by the Latin poets; thus

Quantī cāsūs hūmā nā rŏtant:
Mĭnŭs īn pārvīs fōrtū nā fŭrit,
Lĕvĭūs quĕ fĕrīt lĕvĭō rā Dĕus—Seneca.

It would appear, that the anapestic consisted primarily of two anapests, which constituted what may be termed the anapestic base; from which may be formed lines of any length, due attention being paid to the synapheia. No La-' tin poet, however, ever wrote anapestics necessarily consisting of four anapests, (with the exception of a few in Seneca and Ausonius); but for the convenience of printing, they are thus exhibited in editions, although they may be read as dimeters, tetrameters, or as continued paragraphs, the dactyl seldom appearing in any even place, counting from the commencement of a series or paragraph.

Note 1. Those anapestics which are without cæsura, are

the most harmonious; thus

Cupit hic regi proximus ipsi
Clarus claras ire per ire per urbes. Urit miserum gloria pectus—Seneca.

Note 2. And next to these in harmony, are the lines in which each dipodia terminates a word; as

Pectora longis | hebetata malis

Jam sollicitas | ponite curas—Seneca.

Note 3. Tragic writers were wont to subjoin an Adonic after several anapestics.

There are likewise the following varieties in Anapestics.

1. The Simonidian Dimeter, Acatalectic, consisting of an anapest, a dactyl, or a spondee, in the first place; and in the last, an anapest, or spondee; as

1 2 Dēflē tě virūm,
Quo non aliūs
Potut causās,
Unā tantum
Pārte au dītā,

Sæpe ēt neutrā—Seneca.

2. The Partheniac Tetrameter, Catalectic, seems a verse of definite length, admitting, in the first and second place, either an anapest, or a spondee; in the third, only an anapest; and lastly a long syllable; as

1 2 3 4
Utĭnām modo no stra redī rent
Īn mo rēs tēm pora prī scos—Boët.

Note. This verse, by changing the manner of scanning it, is the same as the Alcmanian, Dactylic Tetrameter, Catalectic; (see those verses subjoined to the Hexameter,) thus

 Uti nām mödö
 nōstră rĕ dīrēnt

 In
 mōrēs
 tēmpŏră
 prīscōs.

3. The Archebulian Pentameter, Acatalectic, consisting of four anapests, and a Bacchic; thus

1 2 3 4 5

Tibi na scitur o mne pecus | tibi cre scit hædūs—Ter. Mau. It is observed, that what are here termed dimeter and tetrameter anapestics (denominated also monometers and dimeters, two feet being then reckoned equivalent to a measure) are generally so constructed, that they may be read in lines of two, four, or more feet, without the division of a word through the difference of arrangement. The tragic anapestics do not seem to have been confined to a definite length, but to have been extended, by Synapheia, to whatever length suited the poet's convenience; suddenly breaking off at the close of a period, or pause in the sense, and leaving at the end a single foot or half-foot; afterwards beginning a new series or paragraph, running on and terminating, as before; but in such a manner that, in the course of each series or paragraph, the final syllable of every anapest, if not naturally long, is, under the influence of synapheia, rendered long by the concourse of consonants. For, (as Dr. Clarke observes, Il. A. 51,) the anapest, consisting of two short syllables followed by a long one, receives a fuller pronunciation upon the final syllable than any other foot; and the pause at the termination of the verse is not sufficient for that purpose, unless the syllable be long, or stand at the conclusion of a sentence. In regard to the subject of this note, Hermann writes; Dimetris tragici Latini Græcorum more usi sunt, ut systematibus comprehensos paroemiaco clauderent, de qua re dixit Bentleius in epistola ad Jo. Millium, p. 474. Isque etiam hos poetas ultimam communem adspernatos contendit. Quod etsi perditis illis tragædiis certo affirmari non potest, veri tamen est simillimum, quandoquidem in satis magno fragmentorum numero, numquam ista anapæstorum lex violata est.

Of the Carmen Horatianum.

What is called the *Carmen Horatianum*, is a compound, in which Horace very much delighted; consisting of four verses, of which the first two are Dactylic Alcaïcs, the third an Archilochian Iambic, and the fourth a Dactylic Alcaïc different from the preceding; as,

Virtus repulsæ nescia sordidæ Intaminatis fulget honoribus. Nec sumit, aut ponit secures Arbitrio popularis auræ. Of each of which in their order.

1. The first and second verse of the Carmen Horatianum is the Greater Dactylic Alcaïc Tetrameter, Hypercatalectic; consisting of an Iambic Penthemimer, i. e. a spondee, or iambus, (but oftener a spondee,) an iambus, and a cæsura or long syllable; and after that, two dactyls; thus

Vīrtūs repūl sæ nēsciā sōrdidæ, Intā minā tīs fūlget ho nōribus.

It deserves remark, that, in some of Horace's Greater Alcaïcs, the cæsura is sometimes found in the beginning of a word, sometimes in the middle, and sometimes it is a monosyllable 1; thus

¹ Perhaps, strictly speaking, the propriety of this remark may be questioned. A monosyllable, it has already been mentioned, may produce the same effect as a cæsural syllable; and, therefore, though there is no cutting off, we speak, with little impropriety, of the monosyllabic cæsura or pause. In regard, however, to the second example, it may be observed, that cip, which is called the middle syllable, is, in a metrical point of view, the

1 2 3 4
Spēctān dus in cēr tāmine Mārtio—O. 4. 14.
Hīnc om ne prin cīp ium hūc refer ēxitum—O. 3. 6.
Hōc cā vērāt mēns providă Rēgūli—O. 3. 5.

2. The third verse is the Archilochian Iambic Dimeter, Hypercatalectic; which has in the first place a spondee, and sometimes an iambus: in the third place, a spondee; and in the second and fourth, an iambus only, with a remaining syllable; thus

1
2
3
4

Nēc sū mit aut | pōnīt | sĕcū res. Rĕdē git ād | vērōs | timō res.

In one line, an iambus appears in the third place; Disjecta

last, since it precedes an elision; or rather, the *i* which precedes the final *um*, must be pronounced like *j*, and considered a consonant, in the measure of the verse. And thus also in Vos lene consilium et datis et dato—iii. 4, 41. The cer of the first example is a long syllable, but I do not see how it can be properly termed a cæsura. Nor does it appear that the place of the cæsura is accurately observed in another line, Mentemque lymphatam Mareotico—i. 37, 14. In three verses, the cæsura may seem to be preserved by the separation of a preposition in a compound word;

Hostile aratrum exercitus insolens—i. 16, 21. Antehac nefas depromere Cæcubum—i. 37, 5. Utrumque nostrum incredibili modo—ii. 17, 21.

There are frequent instances of elision after the cæsura; such as Mentem sacerdotum incola Pythius, i. 16, 6. Of the enclitic que elided, there is one instance, i. 35, 10. There are three or four elisions, where the word ends with a short vowel; as Audire et videor pios, iii. 4, 6. Of elisions in words like invisi, sub dio, incesto, redonabo, just as many. Instances of the following kind are not very frequent.

Nil interest, an || pauper, et infimâ—ii. 3, 22. In rebus; illum ex || mœnibus hosticis—iii. 2, 6.

One instance occurs of a vowel not elided; Jam Dædaleo || ocior Icaro—ii. 20, 13.

in which Bentley conjectures tutior.

Of an elision before et at the end of the first verse, which et, of course, in sense belongs to the second, the following are instances; quærere, et; violaria, et; Cyprum, et; copiam, et; negotio, et; utili, et. In two instances, (iii. 1, 38; 29, 46,) neque, at the conclusion of the second verse, commences a new sentence with the third.—With respect to the beginning of these two lines, it is remarked, that the iambus is not common; that it occurs seldom in the first and second book, and very rarely in the third and fourth. There is, perhaps, but one instance of a short syllable in the eæsura: Si non periret immiserabilis—iii. 5, 17. Some critics would, however, lengthen the syllable by reading perirent.

non lĕvi ruinâ—Od. 2, 19, 15. But this reading has been corrected by Bentley from MSS. Disjecta non lēni ruinâ. Horace, therefore, uniformly rejects an iambus in the third place; but Alcæus, in the Greek stanza, regularly uses it. The third line of the Alcaïc strophe seems to differ from the two first, in point of quantity, chiefly in having two trochees at the end, instead of two dactyls; thus

Sīlvæ lăbō rān tēs gĕ lūque. Nēc sū mit aut pō nīt sĕ cūres.

3. The fourth verse is the Less Dactylic Alcaïc Tetrameter, Acatalectic; having, in the first and second place, a dactyl, and in the third and fourth, a trochee; thus

Ārbītri o popu lāris auræ. Purpure o vari us co lore.

OF THE VERBAL STRUCTURE.

I. In the composition of this stanza, in Latin , the third verse does not *begin* with a word of four syllables, nor with

words naturally going together to that amount 2.

Horace, i. 26, 11, has Hunc Lesbio \parallel sacrare plectro, and, with an elision, ii. 3, 27, Sors exitura \parallel et nos in æternum &c., which forms never occur again. Of the iambus at the beginning, only ten instances occur in all the books, and only two in the third and fourth; of which none occur, where the verse begins with a dissyllable.

Referre sermones deorum, et—iii, 3, 71.

In the line, Puer quis | ex aulâ | capillis—i, 29, 7, the first division may be considered, under the influence of the rhythm, a *quasi*-trisyllable. The first division, in other respects, and the second, are formed by Horace in different ways, without any particular attention to the number of syllables in the words which he uses.

II. The verse should not end with (1) a trisyllable followed

¹ For the first canon we are indebted to Mr. Tate, of Richmond, Yorkshire; and for the second, to the late Dr. C. Burney. See Class. Journ. vol. xi, 351, and Month. Rev. Jan. 1798.

I have observed only three words of four syllables, but each under elision; funalia, et, iii, 26, 7; rubiginem, aut, iii, 23, 7, and decurrere, et, iii, 29, 59. And three of five syllables, each beginning with a preposition: a sort of words, indeed, from their size, likely to be of rare occurrence; depræliantes, i, 9, 11; enaviganda, ii, 14, 11; and denominatos, iii, 17, 3, the three first syllables of which are, however, as conformable to the rhythm apparently intended, as trisyllabics emphatic on their middle syllable.

by an enclitic or other monosyllable; nor (2) with a word of four syllables; and (3) as seldom as possible with two dissyllables ¹.

There are in Horace 317 verses written in the metre, to

which these two canons refer.

1 I do not find that any of our metrical critics, who enjoin that words of certain sizes should occupy particular parts of a verse, assign any satisfactory reason for their canons on this subject. As far as mere quantity is concerned, the length of the word seems immaterial. Some of them, however, go so far as to say, that it is for the sake of the rhythm, that certain sorts of words are requisite in certain parts of the verse; but they do not declare explicitly, in which of the essentials of a note of speech, solely or chiefly, they believe the rhythm to consist. We have little doubt, as already observed under Accent, that the essence of antient rhythm resides chiefly in that property of speech, which almost entirely regulates modern versification, Syllabic force or emphasis; that the alternate or periodical return of the emphatic and the remiss or weak syllables, in which the rhythm chiefly consisted, was sometimes visibly indicated, by the antients, by the action of thesis and arsis; and that it was chiefly to contribute to the more easy and harmonious flow or pulsation of such syllables, that, in certain parts of a verse, words of a certain size were deemed preferable to others of a different size. In the first two lines of the Latin Alcaïc stanza, if read in metrical cadences, the 2nd, 4th, 6th and 9th syllables seem to be emphatic. In the fourth line, the 1st, 4th, 7th, and 9th seem to be the emphatic syllables. In the third line, to which alone the ca-nons apply, the emphatic syllables, if we read it according to the feet, appear to be the 2nd, 4th, 6th, and 8th, the verse beginning, to use the terms of modern music, in the middle of a bar, with either a long weak, or a short weak syllable, but generally with the former, thus, in feet, Lenés que súb | noctém | At the same time, it can scarcely escape notice, that, in the choice of words, [we are now referring to words and syllabic emphasis, not to feet and quantity Horace, for the most part, prefers trisyllables, in our usual prosaic pronunciation, emphatic on their middle syllable, or a part of a word, or a combination of words or syllables, naturally receiving, or readily admitting such an emphasis; as Audita | musarum | sacerdos. | Lenesque | sub noctem | susurri; or arranged in what has been termed triple time; thus Lenes que sub noc tem susur ri. Audita mu sarum sacer dos, there being, as is frequently the case in this measure in English, a deficient syllable at the beginning, and a supernumerary one at the end. And this preference seems to have been observed particularly at the close of the line. The chief difference between the poetic and the prose rhythm of the line, lies in the third foot, where the spondee, in the former, emphatic on its last syllable, sometimes consists of a word, or a part of a word, in our common prosaic cadence, emphatic on the penultimate, as noctem, mu-sarum. In fact, it appears to me, that the two canons might be correctly enough generalised thus: The three first syllables of the verse, and the three last, should be such as naturally receive, or readily admit, the syllabic emphasis on the middle syllable. And I see no good reason, why the same principle should not be applied, though certainly much less rigidly, to the three middle syllables of the verse, even notwithstanding the little diversity that seems sometimes to exist between the prosaic, and what is supposed to be the poetic, rhythm, in the third foot. The first division consists most frequently, and, we think, most harmoniously, of a trisyllable; or of a dissyllable preceded by a monosyllable; or of a dissyllable followed by a syllable or monosyllable; and less frequently of two first syllables preceded by a monosyllable, or of three first syllables. The second division, in like manner, consists most commonly of a trisyllable. It is formed also by the three first or three last syllables of a word; or oftener, by a dissyllable, or two first syllables, preceded by a monosyllable; or by a dissyllable, or two last syllables, followed by a monosyllable, seldomer a syllable; and, like the first division, in a few other ways, perhaps, less frequent, as well as, in our mode of pro(1) No instance occurs of a final monosyllable following a hyperdissyllable, except in cases of elision. In the solitary instance in which a word of one syllable closes the line,

nouncing, less agreeable to the ear of a modern. An initial penthemimer is succeeded by a monosyllable; thus Te belluosus qui remotis—iv. 14, 47. The only exceptions are the dissyllables and quadrisyllables. A final penthemimer is preceded by a monosyllable; thus Consulque non unius anni—iv. 9, 39. There is but one exception, Hunc Lesbio &c. Instead of a monosyllable, a dissyllable under elision may precede, as in In majus; idem odère vires—iii. 4, 67, but is inadmissible after, the penthemimer. A final penthemimer, in a single word, would be repugnant to the second canon. Among the most unharmonious lines, appear to be those, altogether, terminating with two dissyllables. But, as occasional variations from what may seem to be the more usual, strict rhythm, such deviations ought not to be regarded as blemishes. Whatever the moderns may think of these and a few other lines, (and it must be confessed that they have a very imperfect knowledge of the subject,) Horace was not likely, without a sufficient reason, to deviate from what appears to have been his more usual practice. A strict and unfailing regularity in tone, pause,

or emphasis, has never been regarded as a poetical beauty.

But be these things as they may, whether the line is read with metrical, or with prosaic cadence, it is evident, from a very cursory inspection of the third division, that, either way, the verse closes with two very weak or unemphatic syllables having an emphatic one between them. 1. To produce such a close, no word can be better adapted, than a trisyllable emphatic on its middle syllable, a word which invariably has its extremes very weak, and equally so; such as amores, Sabina, parentes, procellae, nocentem, cupressos, &c. with which kind of words most of the lines conclude. 2. The next conclusion, in point of harmony, is, probably, that of a dissyllable followed by an enclitic, which, in effect, thus becomes a trisyllable emphatic on the middle syllable, and equally unemphatic on the extremes, as geluve, geretque, gravesque. The principal objection to any other monosyllable, after a dissyllable, than an enclitic, as in the solitary instance, Depone sub lauru mea, nec, seems to be, that such words have not the same influence, as enclitics, in inclining the syllabic emphasis to the syllable immediately preceding them, and do not so intimately cohere with it. 3. Similar to this conclusion, but, perhaps, somewhat inferior in coherence, is that ending, which consists of a dissyllable preceded by an enclitic not following a monosyllable, or by a monosyllable, or the final weak syllable detached from a hyperdissyllabic word, as, verecundumque-bacchum, fortunâque dulci ; in-agros, sub-arcto, per-artes ; sacrare-plectro, derivata clades. Such weak syllables, before the dissyllable, are sufficiently attracted by the contiguous emphasis of the dissyllable, so as to form with it one word; but no syllable, except an enclitic, can follow, because no other syllable has the power of inclining the emphasis from the first syllable of the dissyllable to the se-4. Next may be placed, the three quadrisyllabic endings, occurring in Horace; and we are inclined to think, that, if the distinguished scholar, who first propounded the valuable canon against quadrisyllables, had minutely adverted to the particular conformation and rhythm of these three words, which militate against it, he would have allowed such quadrisyllables to form a sort of exception to his well-grounded canon. They are all of the same quantity and syllabic emphasis; and the second syllable of each consists of a vowel followed by the letter r, a syllable, which when followed, as in these words, by one that is long and emphatic, is among the weakest of unemphatic syllables. This circumstance, common to the three exceptions, ought not, perhaps, to be considered as merely accidental. The last three syllables of these words have precisely the same effect, as trisyllabics long and emphatic on their middle syllable; and we are confident, that the modern poet, who should conclude his verse with a quadrisy!lable of precisely the same description, would not mar its rhythm, or incur the censure of any liberal critic. It may be said,

a dissyllable precedes: Depone sub lauru meâ; nec—ii. 7, 19. As to elisions, in i. 35, 11, there is barbarorum et; and in the same ode, retusum in—39. In ii. 13, 23, piorum et. In iii. 3, 71, and iii. 6, 3, deorum et, and iii. 29, 3, rosarum

that such a close occurs but thrice in Horace. To this, it may be replied, that such words are not very numerous, and, even were they more so, that the subject or sense might not require the introduction of a greater number of them. Still it must not be denied, that Horace seems uniformly to avoid quadrisyllabic endings, or what may amount to them, such as a trisyllable followed by a monosyllable; or two dissyllables: decidedly preferring a trisyllable, or that combination which most readily becomes trisyllabic. 5. We have no hesitation to say, that the most inharmonious of all the conclusions is, that of two dissyllables, as sive flamma. Here we have, alternately, a strong, a weak; a strong, and a weak syllable. The second or weak syllable of the first dissyllable is so firmly attracted by the preceding emphatic syllable of its own word, that, without unnatural violence to speech, it can never be separated from it, and be made to coalesce with the second dissyllable, so as to form any thing like a trisyllabic verbal conclusion. Even with two such dissvilables as centum, viri, both emphatic on their first syllable, there seems no mode of perfect union, without a change of the emphasis. These observations are offered, merely in the way of conjecture. Should they be found to be generally correct, the application of the principle upon which they are founded, may be extended to other kinds, and to all the parts, of verses; for we have little doubt, that the antients, in providing for the rhythm of their poetical, and, it may be added, of their prose compositions, had a regard as well to the quality or strength, as to the quantity or length, of the syllables which they employed. Till the nature and influence of syllabic emphasis shall have received due attention, neither, we apprehend, will ancient rhythm be even tolerably understood, nor some apparent anomalies in ancient prosody be satisfactorily elucidated.

Mr. Tate, the eminent scholar to whom, I believe, we are indebted for the valuable Observations on the Stanza of Ovid, observes, that "if the ridiculousness only of the following scheme of scansion for the Alcaic stanza can be forgiven; its avowed purpose must be the better answered from the impossibility

of forgetting it, when it has once caught the ear."

Quis barbarorum, Tityre, Tityre, Quis barbarorum, Tityre, Tityre, Quis barbarorum, barbarorum, Tityre, Tityre, barbarorum.

We, of course, do not object to the quadrisyllable in the third line, though one of that sort of words proscribed by the second canon. It is one of the three quadrisyllables employed by Horace himself; and few words seem better adapted for the supposed rhythm. They have a slight, or what may be termed, the secondary, emphasis on their first syllable; the second syllable is altogether weak; the third has the predominating emphasis or percussio vocis; and the fourth is equally weak with the second. The primary emphasis being on the third, it readily attracts the preceding syllable, so as to render the three last syllables perfectly equivalent to a trisyllable. The following imitation, though, perhaps, not quite unobjectionable, particularly in the third line, may be quoted as no bad exemplification, in English, of what might seem to be the Horatian rhythm of the Alcaïc stanza.

Justum et tenacem propositi virum, &c. No civic ardor, madly tumultuous, No frowning tyrant, fierce and implacable, Can shake the just man's righteous purpose, Firmly to hold an approving conscience.

Nor all the whirlwind's rage on the Adria, Nor Jove's dread thunder, rending the firmament, Though Heaven itself seems falling round him, Pearless, he waits the impending ruin.—Odell. et. In iii. 1, 39, triremi et. There is also in iii. 4, 59, Juno et; and in iii. 29, 7, arvum et.

(2) With respect to quadrisyllables, there are only three

instances, all in the first and second book.

Regumque matres barbarorum, et-i. 35, 11.

Ab insolenti temperatam—ii, 3, 3. Nodo coërces viperino—ii, 19, 19.

(3) There are only eight instances of the admission of two dissyllables at the end of the verse; and these occur, too, in the first and second book; thus Sive flammâ—i. 16, 4. Necte flores—26, 7. Posse rivos—29, 11. Grande munus—ii. 1, 11. Dura navis—13, 27. Sive reges—14, 11. Parce, Liber—19, 7. Atque truncis—19, 11.—It may be added, that only one line occurs, Depone sub lauru &c., which closes with a dissyllable followed by a monosyllable not an enclitic.

No exception to these rules occurs in the third or fourth

book.

Those verses will be the best, and will approach nearest to the rhythm that Horace appears to have intended, which are considered by the writer in composing them, as consisting of three feet or divisions, an *Antibacchius*, (sometimes an *Amphibrachys*) a *Molossus*, and a *Bacchius*¹, each comprehended in a distinct word, thus:

1 2 3 Aūdītă | mūsārūm | săcērdōs.

In the third division, he admits the following varieties. First, It is composed of a trisyllable; as Deprome quadrimum Sabinâ—i. 9, 7. Secondly. Of a dissyllable followed by an enclitic; as Silvæ laborantes geluve—i. 9, 3. Thirdly. It is composed of a dissyllable preceded (1) by a monosyllable, or (2) by an enclitic, or (3) by a final short syllable at the end of a hyperdissyllabic word; thus (1) Portare ventis; quis sub arcto—i. 26, 3. (2) Morem, verecundumque Bacchum—27, 3. (3) Hunc Lesbio sacrare plectro—26, 11. In the first and third division of this class, also, must be numbered the following examples of an elision at the end of this verse;

Of the forms not directly or indirectly forbidden in the foregoing canons, the following scheme will show, in what fa-

¹ Dr. Burney, following Terentian, had reversed the names, terming the *Bacchius* an *Antibacchius*, and *vice versā*; they are here employed in their more usual acceptation.

vour each stood with Horace, and how certain forms prevailed with his more cultivated ear, to the exclusion of others.

	I. II.	[. III. IV.		
A	68	80	148	
B. —— 0 —— — 0 ——	28	27	55	
C	4	41	45	
D	3	4	7	
G	26	15	41	
H - 0 0	2	4	6	
I	1	0	1	
	7.0	4	7	

The form C seems to have been studiously sought or

preferred in the third and fourth books.

The form D occurs so rarely perhaps, only because the words or sets of words going together are rare, which should constitute the syllables \circ ----

The same may be said of forms H and I.

Of the form G, it is obvious to remark, that occurring much oftener in the 1st and 2nd books, than in the 3d and 4th, it must have been less sought by Horace, in the latter, or rather less readily admitted.

With respect to the structure of the fourth line, no form seems quite objectionable, but that in which every word

constitutes a distinct foot.

Oraque | jungere | quærit | ori,

has no parallel in Horace.

The following scheme will show the forms principally adopted by Horace, and in what proportion.

	I. II.	III. IV	•
A00- 00-0	58	67	125
B		29	54
D00 -00 - 0		19	34
Aa		27	30
C	20	7	27
Ac 0 0 - 0 0 0	5	6	11
E	6	4	10
More than two-thirds commence with		- &c.	Next in
umbar and the acceptible account and a with	h	. 11	11870

number are those which commence with - 00 | - 00 - | &c.

There remain vet to be noticed, two kinds of verses, which were not mentioned in the preceding enumeration, because not considered as very common, viz. the Pyrrhic verse, and the Ionic; and lastly, Mixt verses.

OF THE PYRRHIC.

There is but one kind of Pyrrhic verse, consisting of two or more Pyrrhics, such as that of Ausonius, Parental. 27;

Veneria properiter obit : Et a mita Cui brevi-a me-la mo difi-ca re-cino, uti placi- dula supera vi geat, Cele- ripes | ade- at lo ca ta cit' E rebi.

Of these strange verses, one at least, the last, does not seem quite correct. I am inclined to think, that, with any view to harmony or effect, such lines must have been constructed with a regard to the distinction arising from syllabic emphasis, rather than to that arising from mere quan-By pronouncing all the syllables in precisely the same way, it is evident, that neither words, feet, nor cadences, could possibly be produced. Without some knowledge of the rhythm intended, their metrical arrangement must be in a great measure arbitrary. They may be considered as either pyrrhics, tribrachs, or proceleusmatics.

OF THE IONIC.

1. The pure Great Ionic Tetrameter, Acatalectic; consisting of four great Ionics; thus

Fēcīt sătis | ægrūm rābi | ēm qui domu | īt fēminæ—Scalig. 2. The impure Great Ionic, or Sotadean; consisting of three great Ionics, and a spondee; thus

Tuto maris | iras videt | e littore | nautā. Note 1. This kind of verse oftener admits in the third place a dichoree instead of a great Ionic; thus

Has cum gemi na compede | dedicāt ca tenas, Saturne, ti bi Zoilus | annulos pri ores - Mart.

Note 2. It is said to admit also, in all the places, except the last, not only a dichoree, but the second pagon, and the second epitrit.

Note 3. In almost all the places, a long quantity may be resolved into two short quantities, both the long syllables, however, not being resolved at the same time; thus

Elementă ru des quæ pue ros docent mă-gistri-Ter. M.de lit.v.1. Vocalis ut | illam late-re ex utroque co arctet—Ibid: v. 83. Quumdico la vor, dico ni-ves, pluvia, no vales-Ibid. v. 95.

Diversa va lēnt, ăliă dŏ cent, ordine | nullo—Ibid. v. 179. This verse, without the dichoree, and the resolution of quantities, seems to be a species of choriambic.—It may be formed from the Ionic a minore tetrameter, by removing the

two first syllables, when there will remain three great Ionics and a spondee, constituting the Sotadean verse; thus

- | vīno lave|re, aut exani mārī metu entes.

It seems almost unnecessary to add, that dactylics, trochaics, and great ionics, although, as commencing with a long syllable, they may seem their opposites, are, respectively, in the same cadence, with anapestics, iambics, and minor ionics, which begin with short quantities. The ionics appear to have the ictus on the alternate long and short syllables; that is, on the first of both the spondee and the pyrrhic; and the others will be found, I believe, to have their long syllables generally thetic or emphatic. Hence we may infer, that dactylics and anapestics are in what is termed the triple cadence; and the others, in the even. In speaking of the measure of Horace's ode, iii. 12, the Delphin editor observes, "Metrum singulare. Sotadicum vocant aliqui. Alii Rhythmicum, quod ferè nullus pedum numerus insit." A very odd reason, surely, for terming it rhythmicum. There can be no doubt about its quantity; with respect to its rhythm, we have offered a probable conjecture, and, in the present day, little more can reasonably be expected.

3. The Small Ionic; so named, because, in every place, it uses this foot. It is either trimeter, or tetrameter. Thus Horace, Carm. iii. 12, after two trimeters places a tetrameter:

Misrārum ēst, neque ămōrī dăre lūdūm, Neque dulci mala vino lavere; aut ex-

animari metuentes patruæ ver bera līnguæ.

Note. The learned Bentley has, however, shown that this composition of Horace's runs on in ten small Ionics, without any pause; and that, therefore, the whole of the ode is

finished in four decapodiæ of this kind.

It would appear that the Ionic a minore is not confined to a definite number of measures, but may, like the dimeter and tetrameter anapestics, be extended to any length, provided that the final syllable of the measure or foot be naturally long, or, influenced by the law of Synapheia, be made long by the concourse of consonants; and that each sentence or period terminate with a complete measure having the spondee for its close; rules observed by Horace in this ode. It consists of forty measures, and has been divided by Mr. Cuningham and others, into ten verses, each a tetrameter, the line Simul unctos Tiberinis humeros lavit in undis being placed after Studium aufert, Neobule, Liparwinitor Hebri, contrary to the opinion of the Delphin editor,

2 I 2

but with manifest advantage to the sense, and without deranging the order of things or altering the grammatical construction. For other modes of arrangement, see Carmen Dicolon Tristrophon. Although the Ionic a minore, like the Anapestic, may be regarded as a continued series, and be scanned as one line, by Synapheia; yet, if divided into several verses, the arrangement into tetrameters seems preferable to any other.

OF MIXT VERSES.

Verses are said to be Mixt, (the Greeks named them 'Ασυναgτήτους,) when two of different kinds are united. There are various kinds of them; but those only will now be mentioned, of which examples can be produced from Latin poets.

1. The Archilochian Dactylic Trochaïc; of which the first part is a Heroic Tetrameter, or the first four feet of a Hexameter; the second part is an Ithyphallic Trochaïc Dimeter, Brachycatalectic, or three trochces; thus

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 $S\bar{o}lvit\bar{u}r \mid \bar{a}cris\ hi \mid \bar{c}ms\ gr\bar{a}\mid t\bar{a}\ vic\bar{e}\parallel v\bar{e}ris\mid \bar{e}t\ F\check{a}\mid v\bar{o}ni$ —Hor. which some divide into two verses; thus

Solvitur acris hiems grata vice

Veris et Favoni.

2. The Archilochian Elegiambic; of which the first member is the latter part of an Elegiac Pentameter, or the Archilochian Dactylic Penthemimer (consisting of two dactyls, and a syllable); the second member, the Iambic Dimeter, Acatalectic; as

1 2 3 4 5 6
Scrībĕrĕ | vērsĭcŭ|los,||ămō|rĕ pēr|cūssūm³ | grāvi—Hor.
which is commonly divided into two verses; thus

Scribere versiculos, Amore percussum gravi.

It has been objected to this arrangement, that it occasions a false quantity in the line Eques ipso | melior Bellerophonte, | neque pagno, in which the etinal of Bellerophonte, from the latinized Bellerophon, must be long, to constitute an Ionic a minore. To this it has been replied, that ablatives in e from such Greek words as Bellerophontes are sometimes long. Others have observed, that every foot may be considered as a separate verse, and that, therefore, the last syllable is common: but it may be remarked that, throughout the whole ode, there is not another instance of such a liberty. I have no doubt that Horace uses the ablative long of Bellerophontes.

2 Al. pereulsum.

3. The Priapeian Dactylic Hexameter, Acatalectic; consisting of two divisions of a Hexameter, each of three feet; but in such a manner, that, in the first place of both, there is a spondee, or, instead of it, a trochee, or iambus; in the second and the third place of the first division, a dactyl: in the second place of the second division, a dactyl, and the third or last, a spondee. In this kind of verse, the last syllable of the first division is accounted common; as

1 2 3 4 5 6

Hũng lữ cũm tửời để đico gia cônst croqué, Pri lặpe.

Qua đó mũs từa Lāmpsắci est, quaqui silvă, Pri lặpe:

Nām tế proceipu e în sửis

Hêllê spôntia coeteris lostri ostor loris—

Catull.

4. The Anapestic-Ithyphallic; of which the first division is an Anapestic Tetrameter, Catalectic, that is, three anapests, (or in the first and second place, a spondee,) with a remaining syllable: the second division, the Ithyphallic Trochaïc, or three trochees; as

1 2 3 4 5 6

Ithyphāl|licā pōr|rŏ dicā runt|| Mūsi|cī Pŏ|ētæ—Ter. Maur. 5. The Iambelegiac (the converse of No. 2); in which

the first division is Iambic; and the second Elegiac; thus

Nívēs que de ducunt | Jovēm: || nûnc măre ninc sililac—Hor. which is commonly divided into two verses; thus

Nivesque d'educunt Jovem : Nunc mare nunc siliiæ.

6. The Choriambic-Dactylic; in which the first division is the Glyconic, having generally in the first place, a trochee; the second division is the Pherecratic, which, in like manner, has generally a trochee at the beginning; thus

1 2 3 4 5 6

O Collonia que | cupis | ponte | ludere | longo — Catull.

This werse may be divided as in No 3: in which the third

This verse may be divided as in No. 3; in which the third

foot seems to be commonly a cretic.

7. The Choriambic-Trochaïc; of which the first division is the Choriambic Dimeter, or two choriambuses: the second, the Trochaïc Dimeter, Brachycatalectic, whose first foot may be a dactyl; the other two, trochees; thus

1 2 3 4 5

Vēstiāt Al\pīnus apēx || ēt rube ant prupna—Claudian.

8. The Trochaïc-Dactylie; of which the first division is a Trochaïc Penthemimer, that is, in the first place there is

a trochee, in the second a spondee, or dactyl, with an additional syllable; and the second part is an Adonic, that is, a dactyl and a spondee; as

1 2 3 4

Si quis | Arctū ri | sīděră | nescit. Cum ni mīs cels res | explicet | ortus—Boët.

9. The Iambic-Dactylic; of which the first part is an Iambic Penthemimer, consisting of two iambuses, with along syllable, but oftener in the first place, a spondee, and sometimes in the second, a tribrac: and the last part, as in the preceding, an Adonic; thus

1 2 3 4
Prŏpīn quă sūm mō cārdinč lābi.
Mērgāt quĕ sē rās æquŏrĕ flāmmas.
Stŭpēt quĕ sŭbitīs mōbitĕ vūlgus—Boët.

To the above-mentioned verses, which have received their names from the feet which are used with the greater propriety in them, others have been added; such as the *Spondaic*, *Molossic*, *Peconic*, *Antispastic*, &c. But as scarcely any poem is now found written in these verses, they are omitted.

Among the *Mixt* might have been enumerated some of those which have been explained under different divisions or heads. Thus the *Saturnian* (see Iambics, No. 5,) might have been denominated an *Iambic-Trochaïc*; of which the first part may be an Iambic Dimeter, Catalectic; and the second part, a Trochaïc Dimeter, Brachycatalectic; in this manner

1 2 3 4 5 6

Dăbūnt | mălūm | Mětěl|li|| Nævi|ō Pŏ|ētæ.

In the same manner, the learned Bentley divides the Alcaïc Epichoriambic (see Choriambics, No. 3,) into two parts, of which the first may be an Archilochian Trochaïc Dimeter, Acatalectic, with the second foot a spondee, and fourth an iambus; and the second part, an Archilochian Trochaïc (or Iambic) Dimeter, Catalectic, consisting of a trochee, and two iambuses, with an additional syllable; thus,

Te dř[ōs ō'rō, Sy|bărīn||cūr prŏ|peres | ămān|do.

The foregoing enumeration contains a full, and, it is hoped, an accurate account of the principal kinds of verses, that have been employed, more or less frequently, in what is termed the *Carmen Simplex'* seu *Monocolon*; that is, in poems consisting of lines of similar metre or quantity, and

One compound has been introduced, the Carmen Horatianum.

commonly divided, according to the subject, into epic, satire, epistle, tragedy, comedy, ode, epigram, &c. The usual names and arrangement have been adopted. They are, however, sometimes divided into Hexameters, and such as are composed of similar feet; into Iambics pure and mixt; and into Lyrics, including all not contained in the two preceding classes. But the most natural and rational division of them is that, founded on the prevalence, or greater propriety in the use, of particular feet in their construction, into Pyrrhics, Dactylics, Anapestics, Iambics, Trochaïcs, Choriambics, Ionics, and to these may be added the Mixt; a classification which we have rendered perfectly obvious, by the insertion of occasional references.

Thus, for example,

Hexameters, Pentameters, and those of similar construction, are *Dactylics*.

The Asclepiadic is a *Choriambic* Tetrameter, Acatalectic. The Glyconic is a *Choriambic* Trimeter, Acatalectic.

The Sapphic is a *Trochaïc* Pentameter, Acatalectic. The Adonic is a *Dactylic* Dimeter, a part of a Hexameter.

The Phaleucian is a *Trochaic* Pentameter, Acatalectic. The Pherecratic is a *Dactylic* Trimeter, a part of a Hexameter.

The Scazon or Choliambus is an *Iambic* Trimeter, Acatalectic.

The Anacreontic is an Iambic Dimeter, Catalectic.

The Horatian is composed of (1) and (2) the Alcaïc Dactylic Tetrameter, Hypercatalectic; (3) The Archilochian Iambic Dimeter, Hypercatalectic; (4) The Alcaïc Dactylic

Tetrameter, Acatalectic.

Compositions, in one sort of verse, consist more frequently of Hexameters, in which are written heroic poems; of Iambic trimeters, adapted to tragedy; Scazons; Trochaïcs, especially tetrameters, much used by Plautus and Terence in comedy; Asclepiadics; Phaleucians; and Anapestics: less frequently, of Iambic dimeters, and tetrameters catalectic; Glyconics; Sapphics; and Archilochians; and very rarely, of Pentameters or Adonics, a few successive lines of the former occurring in Martianus Capella and Ausonius, and of the latter, in Ter. Maur. and Boëthius.

OF COMPOSITIONS IN WHICH THE VERSE IS VARIED.

It has been already observed, that, when only one sort of verse is used in any ode or poem, such ode or poem is called *Curmen Monocolon*. When more than one kind are

used, the composition is named *Polycolon*, and this is generally distinguished in two ways:

1. By the variety of verses which are used in it.

2. By the *number* of verses of which it consists previous to the completion of one *strophe* or stanza, that is, before the poem returns to the same kind of verse with which it commenced.

First, According to the variety of verses, a composition is named Polycolon; or, more precisely, if there are two different kinds of verses, Dicolon, or bimembre; if three, Tricolon, or trimembre. There is likewise the term Tetracolon; but the ancients did not advance further than to Tricolon.

Secondly, According to the number of verses in one strophe, the poem is named Carmen Distrophon, Tristrophon,

Tetrastrophon, or Pentastrophon.

Distrophon is when the poem returns, after the second verse, to the same verse with which it began. And the other three respectively denote the return of the poem to the primary verse, after the third, fourth, and fifth line.

Indeed, beyond the Tetrastrophon the Latin stanza seldom reached. Catullus, however, has written one of five lines, consisting of four Glyconics, and a Pherecratic.

By a combination of the preceding terms, a poem in which the stanza consists of two verses of different kinds, is named Dicolon Distrophon; when the stanza contains three verses, but only of two sorts, one sort being repeated, it is named Dicolon Tristrophon; when the stanza has four verses, but only of two sorts, one being thrice repeated, it is named Dicolon Tetrastrophon; when the stanza contains five lines, of two sorts, one being four times repeated, it is named Dicolon Pentastrophon. When the poem contains three verses each of a different kind, in one stanza, it is termed Tricolon Tristrophon; and when in a stanza there are four verses, but of only three different kinds, one verse being repeated, Tricolon Tetrastrophon.

Hence it appears that there are six different kinds of composition consisting of a combination of various kinds of verses; and in each kind there are generally several varieties.

I. Of the Carmen Dicolon Distrophon.

1. The Elegiac, or Dactylic Heroic Hexameter, with a Dactylic Pentameter; already explained. (See Pentameter.)

Sponte suá numeros carmen veniebat ad aptos:

Et, quod tentabam dicere, versus crat—Ovid,

2. The Dactylic Hexameter, with an Archilochian Dactylic Dimeter, Hypercatalectic. (See Hexameter, and No. 1, under it.)

Diffugêre nives, redeunt jam gramina campis,

Arboribusque comæ—Hor.

3. The Dactylic Hexameter, with an Alcmanian Dactylic Tetrameter, Acatalectic. (See Hexameter, and No. 4.)

Tunc me discusså liquerunt nocte tenebræ,

Luminibusque prior rediit vigor—Boët.

4. The Dactylic Hexameter, with the Alcmanian Dactylic Tetrameter, Acatalectic. (See Hexameter, and No. 5.)

Laudabunt alii claram Rhoden, aut Mitulenen.

Aut Ephesum, bimarisve Corinthi—Hor.

5. The Dactylic Hexameter, with an Alcmanian Dactylic Tetrameter, Catalectic; or, as others name it, a Partheniac Anapestic Tetrameter, Catalectic. (See Hexameter, No. 8, and Anapestics, No. 2.)

O qui perpetuis orbem moderaris habenis, Placidos bonus exsere vultus—Buchan, Ps. 68.

6. The Dactylic Hexameter, with an Iambic Dimeter, Acatalectic. (See Hexameter, and Iambic Dimeter.)

Nox erat, et cœlo fulgebat luna sereno

Inter minora sidera—Hor.

7. The Dactylic Hexameter, with an Iambic Trimeter. (See Hexameter, and the Iambic Trimeter, in Iambics.)

Altera jam teritur bellis civilibus ætas ; Suis et ipsa Roma viribus ruit—Hor.

8. The Dactylic Hexameter, with an Archilochian Elegiambic. (See Hexameter, and Mixt verses, No. 2.)

Te regem Dominumque canam, dum lucida volvet

Lucidus astra polus, et unicum colam Deum—Buchan. Ps. 145.

In this manner ought the lines to be written, according to the opinion of the famous Bentley, but Buchanan himself has divided them into three verses.

9. The Dactylic Hexameter, with an Iambo-Elegiac. (See Hexameter, and Mixt verses, No. 5.)

Horrida tempestas cœlum contraxit, et imbres

Nivesque deducunt Jovem: nunc mare, nunc silüæ—Hor.

10. The Alemanian Dactylic Trimeter, Hypercatalectic, with a Pherecratic Dactylic Trimeter, Acatalectic. (See Hexameter, No. 2, or 3, and the Pherecratic verse.)

Omne hominum genus in terris Simili surgit ab ortu—Boët.

11. The Alemanian Dactylic Tetrameter, Acatalectic,

with an Archilochian Dactylic Dimeter, Hypercatalectic. (See Hexameter, No. 4, and No. 1.)

Quam thalamo, tædisque jugalibus Invida mors rapuit—Auson. Parent. 2.

12. The Alcmanian Dactylic Tetrameter, Acatalectic, with an Iambic Dimeter, Acatalectic. (See Hexameter, No. 4, and the Iambic Dimeter, in Iambics.)

Sunt etenim pennæ volucres mihi, Quæ celsa conscendant poli—Boët.

13. The Anacreontic Iambic Dimeter, Catalectic, with the Pherecratic Dactylic Trimeter, Acatalectic. (See the Anacreontic and Pherecratic verses.)

Quisquis volet perennem Cautus ponere sedem—Boët.

14. The Iambic Trimeter, Acatalectic, with the Elegiac Pentameter. (See Iambics, and Pentameter.)

Quamvis fluente dives auri gurgite

Non expleturas cogat avarus opes—Boët.

15. The Iambic Trimeter, Acatalectic, with the Iambic Dimeter, Acatalectic. (See Iambics.)

Ibis Liburnis inter alta navium, Amice, propugnacula—Hor.

16. The Iambic Trimeter, Acatalectic, with the Archilochian Elegiambic. (See Iambics, and Mixt verses, No. 2.)

Petti, nihil me, sicut antea, juvat

Scribere versiculos, amore percussum gravi—Hor.

17. The Scazon Iambic, with an Iambic Dimeter, Acatalectic. (See the Scazon, and Iambics.)

Verona docti syllabas amat vatis; Marone felix Mantua est—Martial.

18. The Euripidean Trochaïc Dimeter, Catalectic, with an Iambic Dimeter, Acatalectic. (See Trochaïcs, No. 3, and Iambics.)

Orbis omnes incolæ,

A sole Eoo ad Hesperum-Buchan.

19. The Euripidean Trochaïc Dimeter, Catalectic, with an Archilochian Iambic Trimeter, Catalectic. (See Trochaïcs, No. 3, and Iambics, No. 3.)

Non ebur, neque aureum

Mea renidet in domo lacunar-Hor.

20. The Alemanian Trochaïc Dimeter, Acatalectic, with a Pherecratic Dactylic Trimeter, Acatalectic. (See Trochaïcs, No. 4, and the Pherecratic verse.)

Quos vides sedere celsos Solii culmine reges—Boët. 21. The Trochaïc Tetrameter, or Octonarius, Catalectic, with an Iambic Trimeter, Acatalectic. (See Trochaïc, and Iambic verses.)

Ore pulchro, et ore muto; scire vis quæ sim? Volo. Imago Rufi rhetoris Pictavici—Auson. Epig. 51.

22. The Sapphic Pentameter, Acatalectic, with an Iambic Dimeter, Acatalectic. (See Sapphics, and Iambics.)

Gentis humanæ pater atque custos, Quam sancta majestas tui—Buchan.

23. The Sapphic Pentameter, Acatalectic, with the Glyconic Choriambic Trimeter, Acatalectic. (See the Sapphic, and Glyconic verses.)

Cum polo Phæbus roseis quadrigis Lucem spargere cæperit—Boët.

24. The Phaleucian Pentameter, Acatalectic, with an Elegiac Pentameter. (See Phaleucian, and Pentameter.)

Quid tantos juvat excitare motus,

Et proprià fatum sollicitare manu-Boët.

25. The Phaleucian Pentameter, Acatalectic, with an Alcaïc Dactylic Tetrameter, Acatalectic. (See Phaleucian verse, and Carmen Horatianum.)

Quamvis se Tyrio superbus ostro Comeret, et niveis lapillis—Boët.

26. The Phaleucian Pentameter, Acatalectic, with a Sapphic Pentameter, Acatalectic. (See Phaleucian, and Sapphic.)

Hic portus placida manens quiete,

Hoc patens unum miseris asylum-Boët.

27. The Aristophanian Choriambic Dimeter, Acatalectic, with an Alcaïc Epichoriambic Tetrameter, Acatalectic. (See Choriambics, No. 1, and 3.)

Lydia, dic per omnes

Te deos oro, Sybarin cur properes amando-Hor.

28. The Glyconic Choriambic Trimeter, Acatalectic, with the Asclepiadic Choriambic Tetrameter, Acatalectic. (See the Glyconic, and Asclepiadic verses.)

Sic te diva potens Cypri,

Sic fratres Helenæ lucida sidera—Hor.

29. The Asclepiadic Choriambic Tetrameter, Acatalectic, with the Pherecratic Dactylic Trimeter, Acatalectic. (See the Asclepiadic, and Pherecratic.)

Si quantas rapidis flatibus incitus Pontus versat arenas—Boët.

30. The Asclepiadic Choriambic Tetrameter, Acatalectic, with an Iambic Dimeter, Acatalectic. (See Asclepiadic and Iambic verses.)

Eheu, quæ miseros tramite devios Abducit ignorantia!—Boët.

31. The Dactylic-Trochaïc Septenarius, with an Archilochian Iambic Trimeter, Catalectic. (See Mixt verses, No. 1, and Iambics, No. 2.)

Solvitur acris hiems grată vice veris et Favonî, Trahuntque siccas machinæ carinas—Hor.

32. The Trochaïc-Dactylic, with an Iambic-Dactylic, (See Mixt verses, No. 8, and 9.)

Si quis Arcturi sidera nescit

Propinqua summo cardine labi—Boët.

II. Of the Carmen Dicolon Tristrophon.

1. Two Aristophanian Anapestic Tetrameters, Acatalectic, and an Adonic Dimeter, Acatalectic. (See Anapestic verse, and Adonic.)

Tu quoque in ævum, Crispe, futurum

Mæsti venies commemoratus

Munere threni-Auson.

2. Two Alemanian Trochaïc Dimeters, Acatalectic, and a Euripidean Trochaïc Dimeter, Catalectic. (See Trochaïcs, No. 4, and No. 3.)

Incolæ terrarum ab ortu Solis ultimum ad cubile,

Eia Domino psallite-Buchan.

3. Two Small Ionic Trimeters, Acatalectic, and then a Small Ionic Tetrameter, Acatalectic. (See Ionics, No. 3.)

Miserarum est, neque amori dare ludum, Neque dulci mala vino lavere; aut ex-

animari metuentes patruæ verbera linguæ—Hor.

The celebrated and learned Bentley, following Mar. Victorinus, has arranged the foregoing lines, in his edition, in such a manner that the first two lines become tetrameters, and the third a dimeter, although he considered the ode as monocolon, and to be measured by decapodiae. (See Ionics.)

Miscrarum est, neque amori dare ludum, neque dulci

Mala vino lavere; aut exanimari metuentes

Patruæ verbera linguæ.

They have likewise been arranged (as if a Carmen Tricolon Tetrastrophon) in four verses; viz. two Small Ionic Trimeters, Acatalectic; a Small Ionic Trimeter, Catalectic; and an Adonic; thus

Miserarum est neque amori dare ludum, Neque dulci mala vino lavere, aut exănimārī mětŭēntēs pătrūc—

Verbera lingua.

Note, The third line consists of two small Ionics and an Anapest.—Indeed, scarcely does any composition, entitled exclusively to the denomination dicolon tristrophon, seem to exist in any classical author.

III. Of the Carmen Dicolon Tetrastrophon.

1. Three Anacreontic Trochaïc Dimeters, Acatalectic, and a Choriambic-Trochaïc Quinarius. (See Trochaïcs, No. 5, and Mixt verses, No. 7.)

Age cuncta nuptiali Redimita vere tellus, Celebra toros heriles:

Omne nemus cum fluviis, omne canat profundum—Claud.

2. Three Sapphic Pentameters, and an Adonic Dimeter. (See Sapphic verse, and Adonic.)

Quid brevi fortes jaculamur ævo Multa? quid terras alio calentes Sole mutamus? patriæ quis exsul

Se quoque fugit?—Hor.

3. Three Glyconic Choriambic Trimeters, Acatalectic, and a Pherecratic Dactylic Trimeter, Acatalectic. (See the Glyconic verse, and Pherecratic.)

Dianæ sumus in fide Puellæ, et pueri integri: Dianam pueri integri, Puellæque canamus—Catull.

4. Three Asclepiadic Choriambics, and a Glyconic Choriambic. (See Asclepiadic, and Glyconic verse.)

Inclusam Danaën turris ahenea, Robustæque fores, et vigilum canum Tristes excubiæ munierant satis Nocturnis ab adulteris—Hor.

IV. Of the Carmen Dicolon Pentastrophon.

This is very uncommon. There is only one kind, composed of four Glyconic Choriambic Trimeters, Acatalectic, to which is subjoined a Pherecratic Dactylic Trimeter, Acatalectic. (See Glyconic, and Pherecratic.)

Collis O Heliconii Cultor, Uraniæ genus, Qui rapis teneram ad virum Virginem, O Hymenæe Hymen, Hymen, O Hymenæe—Catull.

V. Of the Carmen Tricolon Tristrophon.

1. A Heroic Dactylic; an Archilochian Dactylic Dime-

ter, Hypercatalectic; and an Iambic Dimeter, Acatalectic. (See Hexameter, and No. 1; and Iambic verse.)

Te Regem Dominumque canam, dum lucida volvet

Lucidus astra polus,

Et unicum colam Deum-Buchan. Ps. 145.

2. A Hexameter; an Iambic Dimeter; and an Archilochian Dactylic. (Same as the last, but in a different order.)

Pectore te grato Dominumque Deumque fatebor,

Coram superbis regibus,

Et tua facta canam-Buchan. Ps. 138.

By others this is considered as a Carmen Dicolon Distrophon, such as the thirteenth Epode of Horace, in imitation of which, Buchanan wrote this psalm. This epode may be likewise divided in the same manner;

Horrida tempestas cælum contraxit; et imbres

Nivesque deducunt Jovem:

Nunc mare, nunc siluæ-Ep. 13.

As a Carmen Dicolon Distrophon, it is thus divided;

Horrida tempestas cœlum contraxit; et imbres

Nivesque deducunt Jovem. Nunc mare, nunc siluæ. The first is a Heroic Hexameter; the second an Archilochian Iambic Elegiac; as in the edition of D. Heinsius, printed 1718. (See Mixt verses, No. 5, and Carmen Dicolon Distrophon, No. 9.)

3. An Iambic Trimeter, Acatalectic; an Archilochian Dactylic Dimeter, Hypercatalectic, (or Dactylic Penthemimer;) with an Iambic Dimeter, Acatalectic. (See Iam-

bics, and Hexameter, No. 1.)

Petti, nihil me, sicut antea, juvat

Scribere versiculos,

Amore percussum gravi—Hor.

According to others, this epode belongs to the Carmen Dicolon Distrophon. (See Mixt verses, No. 2, and Carmen

Dicolon Distrophon, No. 16.)

In the same manner, O. 4. lib. 1, (see also Mixt verses, No. 1,) is arranged as a *Carmen Tricolon Tristrophon*, the first verse being an Alcmanian Dactylic Tetrameter; the second, a Trochaïc Ithyphallic Dimeter, Brachycatalectic; and the third, an Archilochian Iambic Trimeter, Catalectic. (See Iambics, No. 2; and *Carmen Dicolon Distrophon*, 31.)

Solvitur acris hyems grata vice

Veris et Favoni:

Trahuntque siccas machinæ carinas.

4. A Glyconic Choriambic Trimeter; an Asclepiadic Choriambic Tetrameter; and an Alcaïc Choriambic Pentameter. (See Glyconic, Asclepiadic, and Choriambics, No. 2.)

Per quinquennia jam decem, Ni fallor, fuimus ; septimus insuper Anno cardo rotat, dum fruimur Sole volubili—Prudent.

VI. Of the Carmen Tricolon Tetrastrophon.

1. Two Alcaïc Dactylic Tetrameters, Hypercatalectic, (that is Great Alcaïcs;) an Archilochian Iambic Dimeter, Hypercatalectic; and an Alcaïc Dactylic Tetrameter, Acatalectic, (or Small Alcaïc.) (See Carmen Horatianum, and Iambics.)

Æquam memento rebus in arduis Servare mentem, non secus ac bonis

Ab insolenti temperatam

Lætitiå: moriture Delli-Hor.

2. Two Asclepiadic Choriambic Tetrameters; a Pherecratic Dactylic Trimeter; and a Glyconic Choriambic Trimeter. (See Asclepiadic, Pherecratic, and Glyconic.)

Primâ nocte domum claude, neque in vias

Sub cantu querulæ despice tibiæ:

Et te sape vocanti

Duram, difficilis mane-Hor.

There is likewise a third sort, formed by a certain arrangement of Ode 12. lib. 3. of Horace; for which see the Carmen Dicolon Tristrophon, No. 3.

I shall conclude this system of Prosody with the method of scanning the different *Metra Horatiana*, all of which, along with some slight variations observable in them, have already been fully particularized.—Should any one wish for a comprehensive view of the different kinds of verse used in their compositions by most of the Latin poets of any celebrity, either ancient or modern, he will find it in the works of the learned and accurate Ruddiman, to whose industry and talents I have been particularly indebted, in regard to the present subject.

Horace uses twenty kinds of verse, and chiefly in combinations, as will appear in the following

SYNOPSIS.

- (1) Lib. I. 1. III. 30. IV. 8, are Asclepiadic Tetrameters, Acatalectic. (See the Asclepiadic verse.)
- (2) Lib. I. 2, 10, 12, 20, 22, 25, 30, 32, 38. Lib. II. 2, 4, 6, 8, 10, 16. Lib. III. 8, 11, 14, 18, 20, 22, 27. Lib. IV. 2, 6, 11, and Carmen Seculare, are Dicola Tetrastropha, No. 2;

consisting of three Sapphic Hendecasyllabics, and an Adonic Dimeter.

- (3) Lib. I. 3, 13, 19, 36. III. 9, 15, 19, 24, 25, 28. IV. 1, 3, belong to the *Dicola Distropha*, No. 28; and consist of a Glyconic Choriambic Trimeter, and an Asclepiadic Choriambic Tetrameter, both Acatalectic.
- (4) Lib. I. 4, belongs to the *Dicola Distropha*, No. 31; and consists of the Dactylic-Trochaic Septenarius, with an Archilochian Iambic Trimeter, Catalectic.
- (5) Lib. I. 5, 14, 21, 23. III. 7, 13. IV. 13, belong to the *Tricola Tetrastropha*, No. 2; consisting of two Asclepiadic Choriambic Tetrameters, a Pherecratic Dactylic Tripodia, and a Glyconic Choriambic Trimeter.
- (6) Lib. I. 6, 15, 24, 33. II. 12. III. 10, 16. IV. 5, 12, belong to the *Dicola Tetrastropha*, No. 4; and consist of three Asclepiadic Choriambics, and a Glyconic Choriambic.
- (7) Lib. I. 7, 28, and Epode 12, belong to the *Dicola Distropha*, No. 4; and consist of a Dactylic Hexameter, with an Alcmanian Tetrameter, Acatalectic. (See Hexameter, and No. 5.)
- (8) Lib. I. 8, is a *Dicolon Distrophon*, No. 27; consisting of an Aristophanian Choriambic Dimeter, Acatalectic, with an Alcaïc Epichoriambic Tetrameter, Acatalectic.
- (9) Lib. I. 9, 16, 17, 26, 27, 29, 31, 34, 35, 37. Lib. II. 1, 3, 5, 7, 9, 11, 13, 14, 15, 17, 19, 20. Lib. III. 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 17, 21, 23, 26, 29. IV. 4, 9, 14, 15, belong to the *Tricola Tetrastropha*, No. 1; consisting of two Great Alcaïcs; an Archilochian Iambic Dimeter, Hypercatalectic; and a small Alcaïc. This, from the number of odes written in it, appears to have been Horace's favourite strain, and is, therefore, named the *Carmen Horatianum*.
- (10) Lib. I. 11, 18. IV. 10, are *Monocola*, (See Choriambics, No. 2,) and consist of Alcaïc Choriambic Pentameters, Acatalectic.
- (11) Lib. II. 18, is a *Dicolon Distrophon*, No. 19; consisting of the Euripidean Trochaïc Dimeter, Catalectic, and the Archilochian Iambic Trimeter, Catalectic. (See Trochaïcs, No. 3; and Iambics, No. 3.)
- (12) Lib. III. 12, is either *Dicolon Tristrophon*, or *Tricolon Tetrastrophon*. (See No. 3, of the former; see also Ionics, No. 3.)

- (13) Lib. IV. 7, is a *Dicolon Distrophon*, No. 2; consisting of a Dactylic Hexameter, with an Archilochian Dactylic Penthemimer.
- (14) Epod. 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10, are *Dicola Distropha*, No. 15; consisting of an Iambic Trimeter, and Dimeter, both Acatalectic.
- (15) Epod. 11, is either *Dicolon Distrophon*, No. 16; consisting of an Iambic Trimeter, Acatalectic, and an Archilochian Elegiambic; or it is a *Tricolon Tristrophon*, No. 3; consisting of an Iambic Trimeter, Acatalectic; and Archilochian Dactylic Penthemimer; and an Iambic Dimeter, Acatalectic.
- (16) Epod. 13, is either Dicolon Distrophon, No. 9; consisting of a Dactylic Hexameter, and an Iambo-Elegiac; or Tricolon Tristrophon, No. 2; consisting of a Hexameter; an Iambic Dimeter, Acatalectic; and an Archilochian Dactylic Penthemimer.
- (17) Epod. 14, 15, are *Dicola Distropha*, No. 6; consisting of a Dactylic Hexameter, and an Iambic Dimeter, Acatalectic.
- (18) Epod. 16, is a *Dicolon Distrophon*, No. 7; consisting of a Dactylic Hexameter, with an Iambic Trimeter, Acatalectic.
- (19) Epod. 17, 18, are *Monocola*; consisting wholly of Iambic Trimeters, Acatalectic. (See Iambics.)
- (20) Satires, Epistles, and *De Arte Poeticá*, are all *Monocola*, consisting of the Dactylic Hexameter. (See Hexameter.)

FINIS.

*** Page 413, line 25, read non.
477, line 36, read musa|rum.



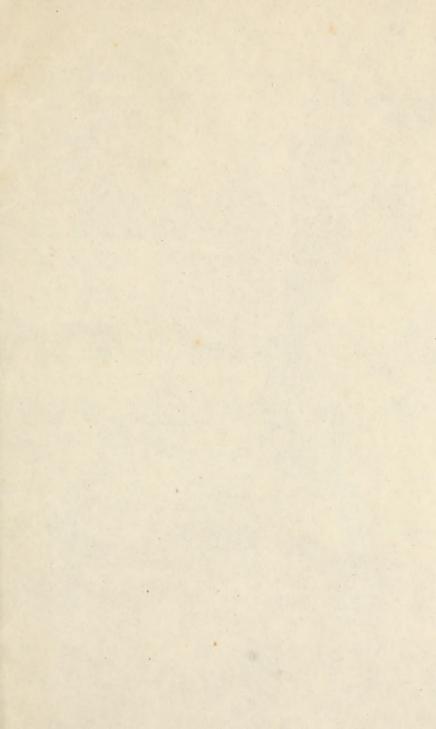
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